

THE STORY OF OUR EMPIRE

UNIFORM WITH THIS VOLUME

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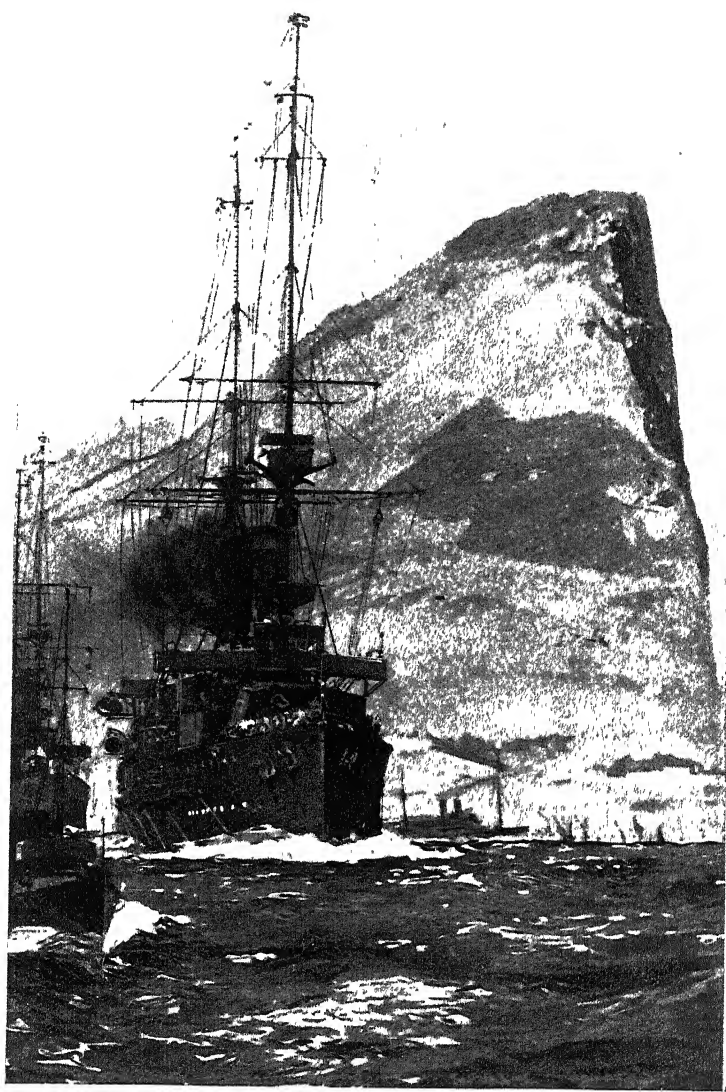
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Fr.

The Rock of Gibraltar

THE STORY OF OUR EMPIRE

BY

PERCY R. SALMON F.R.P.S.

AUTHOR OF

"THE WONDERLAND OF EGYPT" "PALESTINE
FOR BOYS AND GIRLS" ETC.



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GREAT BRITAIN

Preface

THE following chapters are mainly the result of conversations and studies during the Great War (1914-18), when the rulers of Germany, with Austria, Turkey, and Bulgaria as fellow-conspirators, endeavoured to destroy the British Empire. Instead of demolishing it, they did but add to its strength.

When the Motherland was threatened, her children came from every quarter of the globe to her assistance, nor did their eager spirits fail during the most trying hour. Many a time while the Australians and New Zealanders (the gallant 'Anzacs') were fighting at Gallipoli, and the Canadians at Ypres—to name but two episodes of Colonial achievement—the question was asked: "How and when did Australia and New Zealand become parts of the Empire?" or "How came Canada to be British?" The chapters which compose this volume attempt to answer these questions, and to explain in simple language how it is that these lands overseas own loyalty to the British Crown—in other words, they tell 'How the British Empire was built.'

My thanks are due to Mr E. W. Thew and Mr W. L. F. Wastell, two old friends and keen students of English history, who have discussed with me many debatable points, and who have assisted me in the preparation of this volume.

P. R. SALMON

KING GEORGE V TO HIS TROOPS FROM OVERSEAS

THE following message from the King was read by the commanding officers at the conclusion of the Victory March through London on 3rd May, 1919. Twelve thousand soldiers took part, the Dominions being represented by 5000 troops from Canada, 5000 from Australia, 1000 from New Zealand, 500 from South Africa, and 500 from Newfoundland:

"It is with a heart full of pride and gratitude that I take your salute to-day as you march in triumph through London.

"The peoples of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, by their instant readiness to share in the trials and responsibilities of the Great War, have shown to the world the unity of the British Empire.

"You, with your comrades from the Mother Country, vied with one another in noble deeds which will ever be held in proud remembrance.

"Readily you adapted yourselves to the changing conditions of a new and formidable kind of warfare, and endured physical hardships and exacting mental strain. Whether on the plains of Flanders or the heights of Gallipoli, in France, in Palestine, or other theatres of war, you displayed gallant endurance in defence and vigorous initiative in attack.

"We and future generations will never forget the part played by the Canadians in the second battle of Ypres and on the Vimy Ridge; by the Australians and New Zealanders at Gallipoli, and in the advance in France in the spring of 1917; by the troops of all three Dominions in the breaking of the Hindenburg Line last year; by the South African Brigade in Delville Wood; by the Royal Newfoundland Regiment at Monchy-le-Preux.

"Now, in the Day of Victory, I wish to express to you, who represent the Overseas Forces, my unbounded admiration for splendid feats of arms and for sacrifices made.

"I wish you all God-speed on your homeward journey, with a hope that the outcome of this world struggle may assure peace to your children and your children's children.

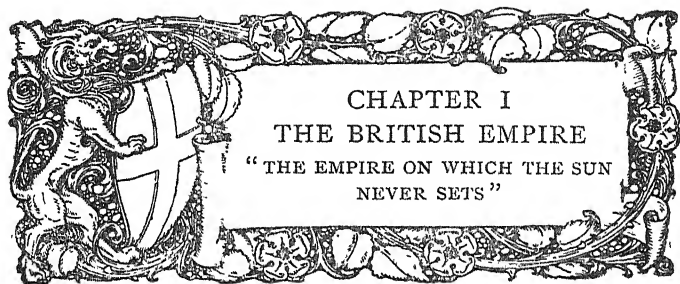
"GEORGE, R.I."

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Shall we not thro' good and ill
Cleave to one another still?
Britain's myriad voices call,
"Sons, be welded each and all,
Into one Imperial whole,
One with Britain, heart and soul!
One life, one flag, one fleet, one Throne!
Britons, hold your own!"

TENNYSON

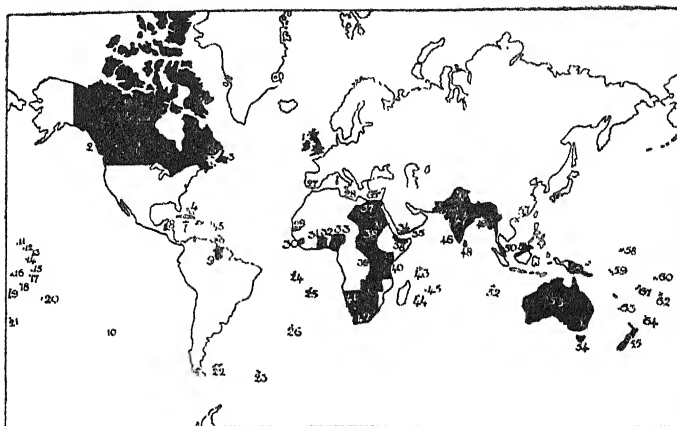
THE Spanish king Philip the Second once said boastfully of his then great empire that it was one on which the sun never set. As a matter of fact, in the year of his boast (1588) it was about the size of Australia. With similar exaggeration the Dutch, not long afterward, adopted the Spanish king's words when their empire was about the size of Canada. But if we as Britons claim now that the British Empire is one "on which the sun never sets," our assertion and pride are justified, for that Empire includes vast self-governing colonies like Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa, great dependencies like India, large protectorates like Egypt, and wide-spreading possessions like Uganda and Nigeria.

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But what do we mean when we say that the Empire is one "on which the sun never sets"? Look at a map of the world on which the various parts of the British Empire appear in black. Imagine that you can travel with the speed of the sun and follow his apparent westward course round the earth. You will find that his rays are *always* shining on some part of the Empire. While the sun is still shining in Great Britain, the islands of the Empire in the Atlantic Ocean, the West Indies, and Canada are also illuminated by his rays. Across Canada the sun passes until the islands of the Pacific, New Zealand and Australia find it day. Then comes the turn of Hong-Kong, Borneo, Singapore, India, Aden and so back to England again by way of Malta and Gibraltar. The reach of the sun over this comparatively small world is enormous. When, for instance, it is 12 o'clock midday in London, it is early morning (8.29 A.M.) in Newfoundland, and afternoon in India (Bombay, 4.51 P.M.). For we must remember that the sun illuminates half of the earth at once.

It is this vision of a great empire encircling the earth, with a common flag (the 'Union Jack') and a common destiny, that has inspired numbers of writers to some of their greatest efforts. Perhaps the best of these is by a great American orator, Daniel Webster, who, as long ago as 1834, was struck by the idea of the Union Jack being saluted each morning at gun-fire wherever British troops were stationed. He said that England was "a Power which has dotted over the surface of the whole globe with her possessions and military posts, whose morning drum-beat, following the sun, and keeping company with the hours, circles the earth with

THE BRITISH EMPIRE



The Empire in relation to the World

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. United Kingdom | 23. South Georgia | 45. Rodriguez |
| 2. Canada | 24. Ascension | 46. Maldives and Laccadive Is. |
| 3. Newfoundland | 25. St Helena | 47. India |
| 4. Bahamas | 26. Tristan da Cunha | 48. Ceylon |
| 5. Windward and Leeward Is. | 27. Gibraltar | 49. Burma |
| 6. Trinidad | 28. Malta | 50. Malay Peninsula |
| 7. Jamaica | 29. Gambia | 51. Borneo |
| 8. British Honduras | 30. Sierra Leone | 52. Coros Is. |
| 9. British Guiana | 31. Gold Coast, Ashanti | 53. Australia |
| 10. Pitcairn Is. | 32. Togoland | 54. Tasmania |
| 11. Palmyra Is. | 33. Nigeria | 55. New Zealand |
| 12. Fanning Is. | 34. Aden | 56. New Guinea |
| 13. Christmas Is. | 35. Perim | 57. Hong-Kong |
| 14. Jarvis Is. | 36. British Somaliland | 58. Gilbert Is. |
| 15. Malden Is. | 37. Egypt | 59. Solomon Is. |
| 16. Phoenix Is. | 38. Sudan | 60. Samoa |
| 17. Starbuck Is. | 39. Rhodesia | 61. Fiji |
| 18. Victoria Is. | 40. East Africa | 62. Friendly Is. |
| 19. Tokelom Is. | 41. South-west Africa | 63. Norfolk Is. |
| 20. Manihiki Is. | 42. Cape Colony | 64. Kermadoc Is. |
| 21. Cook Is. | 43. Seychelles | 65. Cyprus |
| 22. Falkland Is. | 44. Mauritius | |

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one continuous and unbroken strain of the martial airs of England." And Rudyard Kipling, "the poet of Empire," put the same idea into some spirited lines :

You may take hold of the wings of the morning
And flop round the earth till you're dead,
But you'll never get away from the tune that they play
To the blooming old rag overhead.

The poet referred, of course, to our National Anthem and the Union Jack, the idea being expressed in the blunt, rough words of a soldier.

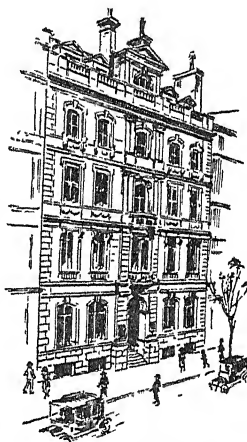
Another Englishman—Sir Charles Dilke—made a tour of the English-speaking lands in the year 1867, and the preface to his book, *Greater Britain*, in which he describes his experiences, is an ever-living summary of what the Empire means to the world. "Everywhere," he wrote, "I was in English-speaking or in English-governed lands. If I remarked that climate, soil, manners of life, that mixture with other people had modified the blood, I saw, too, that in essentials the race was always one. The idea which in the length of my travels has been at once my fellow and my guide—a key wherewith to unearth the hidden things of strange new lands—is a conception, however imperfect, of the grandeur of our race, already girdling the earth, which it is destined perhaps eventually to overspread. In America, the people of the world are being fused together, but they are run into an English mould ; Alfred's laws and Chaucer's tongue are theirs whether they will or no. There are men who say that Britain in her age will claim the glory of having planted greater Englands across the seas. They fail to perceive that she has done more than found plantations of her own—

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

that she has imposed her institutions upon the offshoots of Germany, of Ireland, of Scandinavia, and of Spain.¹ The development of the England of Elizabeth is to be found, not in the Britain of Victoria, but in half the habitable globe. If two small islands are by courtesy styled 'Great,' America, Australia, India must form a 'Greater Britain.' "

How was this great Empire built up? How has it come about that the British flag flies in so many parts of the world? It is the purpose of this book to tell you—to tell you how our soldiers and sailors have fought great battles for the honour of the flag: how our explorers have led expeditions that the flag might be planted in the farthest parts of uncivilized lands, how our traders have sought new markets for English goods and so brought the flag to the places in which they settled. It is a grand story; worth telling, worth remembering. It is a story which will never die; and all Englishmen believe it to be without an end.

The generations of Britons that have passed have built by slow degrees, the present generation has largely added to the Empire, and the old spirit of adventure and sacrifice for the flag will break out again and again in generations to come. As Sir Henry Newbolt sings in "The King's Highway"



The Colonial Institute,
London

¹ In this sentence Sir Charles Dilke is referring to the United States.

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(that is to say, the sea of which England claims to be mistress) :

The mids¹ they hear—no fear, no fear !
They knew their own ship's ghost.
Their young blood beats to the same old song
And roars to the same old toast.
So long as the sea-wind blows unbound
And the sea-wave breaks in spray,
For the Island's sons the word still runs,
"The King and the King's Highway."

Of what the Empire consists you will learn as you go through the following chapters. It is sufficient to say, in this introductory chapter, something about its rapidity of growth. In the year 1600 the total territory belonging to the Empire, outside the United Kingdom, amounted to only 40,000 square miles (Newfoundland). A hundred years later (1700) it had increased to 72,000 square miles, not a very big increase. The eighteenth century, however, saw great additions made, and by 1800 the area had increased to 4,000,000 square miles. In the following century (1800 to 1900) over 9,000,000 square miles were added, with the result that the British Empire to-day consists of nearly 14,000,000 square miles of territory. The little mother country of England contains only 50,222 square miles.

This building of the Empire will perhaps be better understood if I set down the dates on which many of the best-known foundation-stones were laid. We have over seventy possessions in all, but less than half of these will serve to illustrate the point :

¹ ' Mids '—midshipmen. Boy officers in the Royal Navy.

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1583. Newfoundland	1803. British Guiana
1655. Jamaica	1813. Manitoba
1670. North-west Canada	1814. Cape Colony
1672. Gold Coast	1814. Malta
1713. Gibraltar	1824. Queensland
1757-1897. India	1832. Victoria
1759. Quebec	1836. South Australia
1759. Ontario	1843. Natal
1785-1909. Straits Settlements	1889. Rhodesia
1788. New South Wales	1900. Transvaal
1797. Trinidad	1914. Egypt
1801. Ceylon	1919. East and South-west Africa

Thus has the Empire grown, sometimes very rapidly, as when India, Canada and Australia were added, at other times very slowly, as when small places like Gibraltar have become Britain's. But the small places count, and Gibraltar, Aden, and others of our smaller possessions are very important factors in the Empire.

India and Canada (Quebec) are bright spots in the brief list above, and we owe a great deal to the energy, good sense, and foresight of William Pitt, afterward Earl of Chatham. Pitt became Secretary of State and leader of the House of Commons in 1756, just as Britain was getting a foothold in India.

England had previously had several disasters, and Pitt set himself to revive her glory. With this end in view, he sought to destroy the power of France in Canada and India. This he did with the greatest success, thanks to the work of Wolfe, Clive, and other brave Britons of the period. Without Chatham there might have been no conquest of Quebec; the

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burden of the war in Canada was exclusively borne by him, for he arranged even the small details of the campaign. In the extent of its area and the variety of its occupations it was such a war as the history of nations never saw equalled until 1914.

Pitt came into power at the commencement of the Seven Years' War (1756-63), when England and Prussia were set against Austria, Saxony, Russia, France, and Sweden, and it is doubtful whether any war before 1914 was productive of greater results for the human race. It made England the most powerful of nations, and, although we lost some of America, it yet stands true that two great Empires—Canada and India—were won during those seven years.



The Earl of Chatham

An orator of commanding power, with dramatic instinct, which he cultivated to the utmost, Chatham was admirably qualified to raise the national feelings to the highest pitch. He was an ardent patriot, animated by a desire to make the British nation heroic and supreme in the councils of the world. He died in 1778, very soon after the Windward Isles had been added to the Empire, and lies buried in Westminster Abbey.

You will notice also that the British Empire has, in the main, been formed since the year 1700, and an interesting review of the change in the attitude of Great Britain toward countries like France, Italy, and

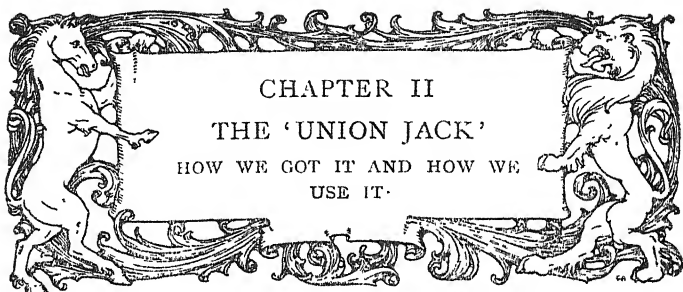
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other nations in Europe is given by the historian J. R. Green in his *Short History of the English People* :

“ Never had England played so great a part in the history of mankind as in the year 1759. It was a year of triumphs in every quarter of the world. In September came the news of Minden and of a victory off Lagos. In October came tidings of the capture of Quebec. November brought word of the French defeat at Quiberon. . . . But it was not so much in the number as in the importance of its triumphs that the Seven Years' War stood, and remains still, without a rival. It is no exaggeration to say that three of its many victories determined for ages to come the destinies of mankind. With that of Rossbach began the recreation of Germany . . . with that of Plassey the influence of Europe told for the first time on the nations of the East . . . with the triumph of Wolfe on the Heights of Abraham (Quebec) began the history of the United States. Nor were these triumphs less momentous to Britain. The Seven Years' War is a turning-point in our national history, as it is a turning-point in the history of the world. Till now the relative weight of the European states had been drawn from their possessions within Europe itself. But from the close of the War it mattered little whether England counted for less or more with the nations around her. She was no longer a mere European Power, no longer a mere rival of Germany or Russia or France. Mistress of Northern America, the future mistress of India, claiming as her own the empire of the seas, Britain suddenly towered high above the nations whose position in a single continent doomed them to comparative insignificance in the after history of the world. The

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war, indeed, was hardly over when a consciousness of the destinies that lay before the English people showed itself in the restlessness with which our seamen penetrated into far-off seas. The Atlantic was dwindling into a mere strait within the British Empire ; but beyond it to the westward lay a reach of waters where the British flag was almost unknown. In the year which followed the Peace of Paris (1764), two English ships were sent on a cruise of discovery to the Straits of Magellan ; three years later Captain Wallis reached the coral reefs of Tahiti ; and in 1768 Captain Cook traversed the Pacific from end to end, and, wherever he touched, in New Zealand, in Australia, he claimed the soil for the English Crown, and opened a new world for the expansion of the English race. Statesmen and people alike felt the change in their country's attitude. To guard and preserve so vast and lucrative a dominion became from this moment not only the aim of British statesmen, but the resolve of the British people."



Banner of England, not for a season, O banner of Britain,
hast thou
Floated in conquering battle or flapt to the battle-cry!

TENNYSON

YOU have wondered, no doubt, how lands are added to the British Empire, wondered as to the way it is made known to other countries that a particular piece of land or a country has become British. The way it is done is very interesting. You will in the course of the following chapters come across many references to the British flag, and learn how our soldiers, explorers, and traders have raised it in foreign lands, and thus brought these lands within the British Empire.

A flag is the symbol of a country—it is a sort of representative of the race, and it may be honoured or dishonoured just like a human being. For instance, you can raise the flag of France—the famous Tricolour—on a flagstaff, and if British soldiers salute it in passing they honour it, and honour France as well. If, however, you fly it from a flagstaff upside down, or the wrong way about, or tear it down and trample

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on it, then you are insulting not only the French flag but France herself.

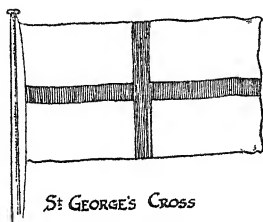
The British flag is honoured not only on land, but upon the sea. From very early times the English required foreign ships to salute English vessels within the narrow seas by lowering or 'dipping' their flag. The Dutch objected to do this in the middle of the seventeenth century, when they were our great commercial rivals, and there was some trouble for a time. In 1673, however, the Dutch gave way to the English claim, and now sailors of every nation 'dip flags.'

Every country has its own flag, and, as you know, the flag of Great Britain and Ireland is the Union Jack, and the Union Jack forms part of every flag to denominate a particular part of the British Empire, for of course the great self-governing colonies, like Canada, Newfoundland, New Zealand, Australia, and South Africa, have their own flags. In every case, however, the Union Jack forms part of the flag.

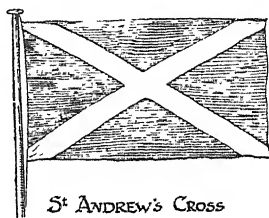
Until the fifteenth century England, Scotland, and Ireland had separate flags. The Union Jack of to-day consists of three flags blended into one. In it are to be found the original English flag (the red cross of St George on a white ground), that of Scotland (white diagonal cross of St Andrew on a blue ground), and that of Ireland (the red diagonal cross of St Patrick on a white ground). The English flag of St George was first authorized by King James I in a proclamation dated 12th April, 1606, and it is thought that the flag got its name of 'Jack' from his, for he always signed himself 'Jacques.' In the year 1707 the Scottish national flag was added to the English flag, and this combination gave a flag with a red and white cross

THE UNION JACK

on a blue ground. It was under this flag, and not our modern Union Jack, that Lord Clive won India for the English crown at Plassey, and that Wolfe won



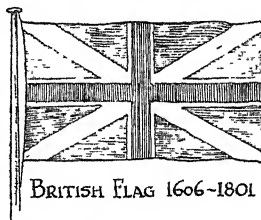
ST. GEORGE'S CROSS



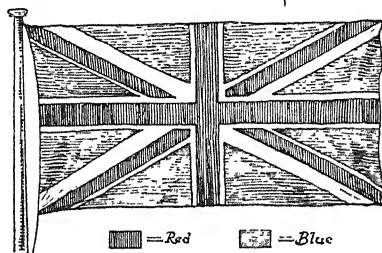
ST. ANDREW'S CROSS



ST. PATRICK'S CROSS



BRITISH FLAG 1606-1801



THE
UNION
JACK.

Composed of
Crosses of
St George
St Andrew
St Patrick

■ = Red

■ = Blue

Canada at the battle of Quebec. Captain Cook planted this flag in Australia and New Zealand, and so added those countries to the Empire.

The Scots, however, were not pleased with the design of the flag, for they complained that the St George's cross was placed in front of that of St Andrew. To

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console them, a Royal order gave the Scots the right to fly the white cross on their foretops, while the English flew the red cross. Times, however, have changed, and the modern Scot is quite satisfied with the present position of his patron's cross on the Empire's flag.

It was after the Union of Ireland in 1801 that the red diagonal cross of St Patrick was added. There was at first some difficulty with Ireland, as there had been with Scotland. When the Union took place, means had to be found for representing the Green Isle on the banner, and the first attempt was to produce a quartered flag, on which England and Scotland were represented by the crosses of St George and St Andrew, and Ireland by a golden harp on a blue ground, as Cromwell had done many years earlier. This idea was not satisfactory, and it was finally decided to use the cross of St Patrick. In order to do this, however, it was necessary to narrow down the stripes of the Irish cross, in order that they should not cover up the white stripes of the St Andrew's cross. It will thus be noticed that the latter shows on either side of the cross of St Patrick, while the narrow white margin round the inside cross of St George was added to separate the red from the blue. It will be noticed, too, on looking at the Union Jack, that the Scottish and Irish crosses are so arranged that in the first and third divisions, counting from left to right, the white of Scotland has precedence, while, in the second and fourth, the red of Ireland is uppermost.

In making the Union Jack, the centre lines of the saltire in which the white of Scotland and the red of Ireland meet are diagonals of the flag. They are often drawn incorrectly as diagonals of the quarters. The white of Scotland is one-tenth the breadth, the red of

THE UNION JACK

Ireland one-fifteenth, and the white border to the Irish red, one-thirtieth. Over all the red of the St George's cross is one-fifth the breadth of the flag, and the white borders on each side of it are one-fifteenth. Thus, if a flag is 30 inches wide, its proper length is 60 inches ; the Scotch white is 3 inches ; Irish red 2 inches ; Irish white 1 inch ; English red 6 inches, and English white (each) 2 inches.

Many people make the mistake of attaching the wrong end of the flag to a pole. The easiest rule to remember in displaying the flag is that the broad diagonal white stripe (St Andrew's cross) should be uppermost in the first and third quarters—*i.e.* nearest the staff, and the red diagonal St Patrick's cross uppermost in the second and fourth quarters.

But who were these saints, and how came they to be associated with England, Scotland, and Ireland ? Their combined crosses make a pretty flag, it is true, and something may be said about them.

The popularity of St George, his cross and day (23rd April being the anniversary of his death) appears to grow each year. St George was not definitely recognized as the patron saint of England until the time of Edward III, although his day had been made a festival day in the Church by a decree of 1222. Details of his life, as given by historians, vary considerably, but all appear to be agreed upon some details which may be put briefly thus. He was born in Cappadocia, became a soldier under Diocletian, and rose to high military rank. He organized the Christian community at Urmi, in Persian Armenia, visited Britain on an Imperial expedition, protested to Diocletian against the persecution of Christians, and, because

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this continued, resigned his commission. He was arrested, tortured, and finally put to death at Nicomedia, 23rd April, A.D. 303, on the eve of the triumph of Christianity.

St George is also the patron saint of soldiers. The Hon. John W. Fortescue, the historian of the British Army, tells us that to our ancestors the saint was a great soldier, leader and champion, and that they fought always with his name upon their lips. On the morning of the battle of Poitiers the first attack of the French was repulsed with terrible loss, and John Chandos urged the Black Prince to seize the happy moment and take the offensive. "Aye, John," was the answer, "no going backward to-day! In the name of God and St George, forward banner!" And it was to the cry of "St George for England" that our men dashed for Zeebrugge Mole on 22nd April, 1918.

The Order of the Garter (the cross of St George in the centre), purely military in its origin, was founded by Edward III between 1344 and 1351, and its institution deepened the feeling for the saint who is so bound up with the first great victories of the British Army.

Henry V, a faithful imitator of the Black Prince, opened the battle of Agincourt almost with the same words as his great predecessor; and in the sixteenth century every English soldier wore what may be termed St George's uniform, a white coat distinguished by a red cross. Time went on, and the white coats—long a synonymous term for English soldiers—passed away, and in 1645 were permanently replaced by red coats. The red cross then found refuge in the national flag, but lost its white ground

THE UNION JACK

after the union of Scotland with England. It is, however, still the most prominent feature in the white ensign of the King's Navy, and remains in all its primitive simplicity on the pennants flown by every man-of-war, and on the flag that distinguishes the flagship of an admiral. In the Army, likewise, it is preserved upon the regimental colours of all regiments whose facings are white.

The dragon, a monster usually pictured with St George on coins (first in 1817) and in old pictures, is also famous. Some think that the dragon is symbolical of sin, others that the dragon really did exist, and that the saint killed it. The story of the dragon-slaying dates from the sixth century, and the legend may be found in many books. It does not, however, concern the Union Jack, and need find no place here.

St Andrew, the apostle saint of Scotland, was the brother of Simon Peter. He was a native of Bethsaida, and in addition to what we are told about him in the New Testament, there are several legends, one of which concerns the X-shaped white cross representing Scotland on the Union Jack. In the course of St Andrew's many journeys, he came to Patrae, in Achaia (Greece), where the wife of one of the governors was so impressed by his preaching that she became a Christian. This so enraged the husband that he commanded that St Andrew should be crucified on a cross, the cross being of the form that now bears his name. History tells us that he was bound to the cross with cords, and thus did not die for two or three days, during which time he preached to his people to remain steadfast to the faith. The 30th of November is St Andrew's Day, and the date of his death is given as A.D. 70. He is also held in high

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regard in Russia, where he is said to have gone on one of his missionary journeys.

St Patrick, the patron saint of Ireland, was born about A.D. 373, at Dumbarton, in Scotland. When about fifteen years of age he was captured in a raid and taken over to Ireland, where he was put to work in the fields. Six years later he escaped to France, where he was haunted by visions of the heathen in Ireland, and inspired to return and preach the Gospel. After some religious study he went to the Pope, who made him a bishop. He then returned to Ireland, where he spent forty years preaching to the people. After fully establishing Christianity in Ireland, he died at Down, in Ulster, about A.D. 464. He sanctified the shamrock by using it as an illustration of the Trinity, but the origin of his particular cross does not appear to be known. St Patrick's Day is 17th March.

How is the Union Jack used ? There is a good deal of ceremonial when the flag is hoisted by our soldiers, but traders simply hoist it, having no means of saluting it in military fashion. How the ceremony is now very formally carried out is shown in a highly interesting account by an eye-witness, published in *The Times*, on the occasion of the surrender of the Samoan Islands in the Pacific, by the Germans to the British, one of the results of the Great War, in 1914. The event took place on 31st August of that year, and is thus recorded, the account being condensed a little in order to make the ceremony more clear to young readers :

“ The German flag that had flown over the island for fourteen years was hauled down, the Germans present doffing their hats and standing bareheaded and silent as they watched the soldier in khaki from New Zealand

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unceremoniously pulling it down, detaching it from the rope and carrying it inside the building. Next morning the British flag was hoisted with all due ceremony. The troops were drawn up in three sides of a square. Inside the square, and facing the flagstaff, were Colonel Logan and staff, in their rough khaki service uniforms. On the right were Captain Marshall, of H.M.S. *Psyche* (the senior naval officer) and the other commanders of the escort with their staffs. On the left, the high chiefs, Tanu Malietoa and Tamasese, with other high chiefs, made a picturesque group. In the harbour the emblem of Britain's might fluttered from the masts of our cruiser escort ; out in the open sea the White Ensign and the Tricolour flew on the powerful warships of the allied fleets of England and France. A few minutes before 8 o'clock all was ready. The commands to the troops had ceased, and an intense silence prevailed. Two bluejackets and a naval lieutenant stood, with the flag, awaiting the signal. A naval officer looked at his watch, and presently the first gun of the royal salute from the *Psyche* boomed out across the bay. Then slowly, very slowly, inch by inch, to the booming of 21 guns the flag was hoisted, the officers, with drawn swords, silently watching it go up. With the sound of the last gun it reached the top of the flagstaff and fluttered out in the south-east trade wind above the tall palms of Upolo. There was a sharp command from the officer at the head of the expedition, and the troops came to the royal salute. The National Anthem and three rousing cheers for his Majesty King George the Fifth followed. Then came the reading of the Proclamation by Colonel Logan, the troops formed up again, and to the music of the band marched back

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to quarters. From start to finish the brief ceremonial was finely impressive, and as the old flag floated out, a symbol of the power and just rule of the British Empire, there were, in the little knot of British people grouped below, some eyes that were dim with the mist of threatened tears ; and there were some who were not at all ashamed to admit the fact."

Methods of taking possession of lands have changed considerably during the history of the making of our Empire, and in contrast to the Samoan performances the ceremony of taking over our very first colony—Newfoundland—by Sir Humphrey Gilbert in 1583 may be quoted.¹

The Empire's Union Jack must not be confused with the Royal Standard. England, Scotland, and Ireland are each represented on the latter as on the former, but in a different way, lions and a harp being used in place of crosses. The three golden lions stand for England, the red lion rampant for Scotland, and the golden harp for Ireland. It is the banner of the United Kingdom which indicates the union of the three states from which Britain's world-wide Empire has sprung. Strictly speaking, the Royal Standard should only be hoisted over the palace or castle where the King is in residence, or at the masthead of the ship occupied by his Majesty. Many fierce controversies have in the past raged round the Royal Standard. Its origin has puzzled many, and the design of the flag has caused jealousies. Why the three golden lions were chosen to represent England's might cannot be clearly explained. The kings of Scotland adopted the lion rampant on their crests, and on the accession

¹ See page 39.

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of James to the English throne in the year 1603 the Scottish lion became part of the Royal Standard. The fact that the Scottish lion was placed in the second quarter of the Royal Standard, while the lions of England occupied the first quarter, roused the wrath of the Scots. They claimed that Scotland was a more ancient kingdom than England, and for many years all flags displayed north of the Tweed had the Scottish arms in the first quarter. The Scottish lion is often used as a national flag of Scotland, but it is not officially recognized as such.

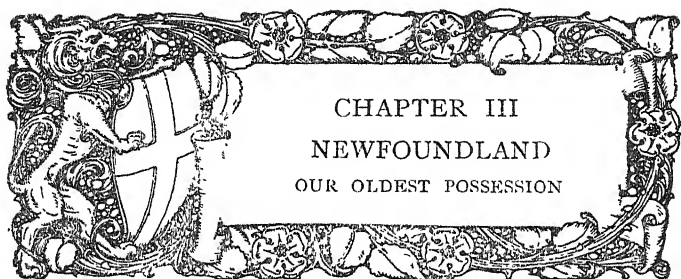
Originally the heraldic device for Ireland was three gold crowns, known as the crowns of Munster. King Henry VIII, however, substituted the harp, as representing the Green Isle, for the crown, but why he did so nobody knows.

The harp, adopted in Henry VIII's reign, was on a blue ground as seen in the Royal Standard. The present green flag was adopted in 1798 to typify the union of the North and the South in the Rebellion, and was the result of the mingling of the orange of Ulster and the blue of the other provinces. Blue and yellow paints when mixed form green.

Empire Day (24th May), now an important date in our calendar, owes its origin to Canada, though one usually associates the event with the Earl of Meath, who did so much to put 'the day' on a solid foundation. Empire Day really came into being at Hamilton, in Canada, on 6th June, 1896, when Mrs Clementina Fessenden was inspired by the gift of a medal from a local historical society to her little granddaughter to propagate among school children the patriotic sentiments of her husband, a former rector of Ancaster.

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Two years later, in August 1898, Empire Day was formally recognized by the Canadian school system, and soon spread from the Dominion throughout the British Empire. It was not, however, until the year 1916 that the festival was officially recognized by the Government, although school children knew and celebrated it some years before. The 24th of May was fixed as the date because it was the birthday of Queen Victoria.



NEWFOUNDLAND ('New-found Land') is Britain's oldest possession. The territory—an island—is nearer to the British Isles than any other part of the continent of America, being only 1675 miles from Cape Clear, in Ireland. The island of Newfoundland is a very large one, about one-third as large again as Ireland, but its population is not nearly so great, being equal only to that of a fair-sized English town, like Bradford.

The colony of Newfoundland consists of more than the actual island, however, for it includes that part of the mainland which is called Labrador. The population of Labrador is not very large—about 4000 people—that part of North America being very bleak, with nearly perpetual snow and ice.

The capital of the entire colony is the town of St John's, on the island part, and it has about 30,000 inhabitants. It gets its name from the fact that it was the spot on which John Cabot of Bristol (who discovered Newfoundland) landed in the year 1497, on the day known to the Church as St John's Day (24th June).

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The story of the discovery of Newfoundland is an interesting one, and one that needs telling in greater detail.

Newfoundland is, of course, a part of America, and in order properly to understand how it was that the New World came to be discovered, we must go back to the time of Christopher Columbus. Columbus in the year 1492 sailed from Spain westward across the Atlantic Ocean, in the hope of getting to India. The lands he first sighted were those about the Gulf of Mexico, which to this day are known as the West Indies, because Columbus thought that they formed part of India. The news of his discovery spread among the sea-going nations, such as Holland, Portugal, France, and England, and in those countries there were many men who were eager to set forth on voyages of discovery in search of fame and wealth. Columbus had set out under the patronage of the King of Spain. When the King of Portugal heard of the 'new world' he too had a desire to patronize similar efforts, and in 1499 Americus Vesputius, an Italian living in Seville, was ordered to set out on a voyage of discovery. Sailing more to the south than the previous explorer, Vesputius finally arrived on the coast of South America. On his return he proudly announced that he had discovered a new world, and in 1507 (in a book called *Mundus Novus*) it was proposed that this new world should be called America—that is to say, the land of Americus, after its discoverer. The names of the New World and America have held ever since. The continents of North and South America are the New World, as opposed to Europe, Asia, and Africa, which together form the Old World.



The First Landing of Columbus in America

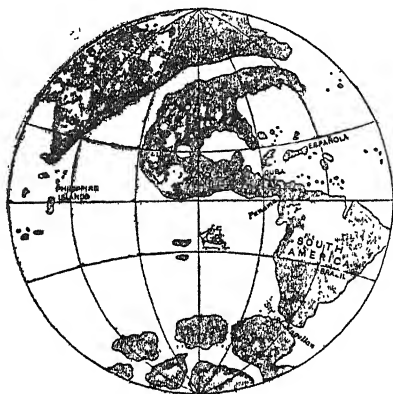
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Then came the turn of England. There lived in Bristol about the year 1497 a John Cabot and his son Sebastian. Like Columbus, John Cabot was a native of the town of Genoa in Italy, and, like Columbus, Cabot had left his native land to seek his fortune abroad, the one in Spain, the other in England. Perhaps the success of his fellow-townsmen fired Cabot to a like effort. At any rate the Bristol man set out from that town in a little ship named the *Matthew*, with a crew of eighteen men. He sailed westward as the others had done, but on a more northerly course, and in process of time reached a new land, which he supposed (so little did people know of the world in those days) to be somewhere in China, but which was in reality what we now know as Labrador. But although the Cabots, father and son, are entitled to the honour of the discovery of the continent of North America, it must be confessed that England, the country of their adoption, made no attempt whatever to profit by the discovery. So little did the English think of Cabot's work that the King (Henry VII) gave him £10, and we find it thus recorded in expenses of the king: "1497 Aug. 10th. To hym that found the New Isle £10." In December of the same year, however, he was granted an annual pension of £20, which in modern money would be equivalent to about £250.

But although Henry VII in his pleasure gave John Cabot a money prize for discovering Newfoundland, the new colony was not taken possession of by Henry, but by Queen Elizabeth many years later. The pleased king, however, did get some value for the £10, for we are told that Cabot brought the king from the 'New-found Land,' three savages. Richard Hakluyt,

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a writer on historical matters who lived in the sixteenth century, tells us that "these savages were clothed in beasts' skins, and did eate raw flesh, and spake such speech that no man could understand them, and in their demeanour like to brute beastes." Yet the same narrator found the men at the royal abode two



The North-West Passage

years later, so dressed that he could not distinguish them from Englishmen.

Such is the brief story of the discovery of our earliest colony. What you still have to read is the glorious narrative of the succession of great explorers who later overran North America in the hope of finding a

short way to the Far East. Cabot himself discovered Newfoundland in trying to reach India or China.

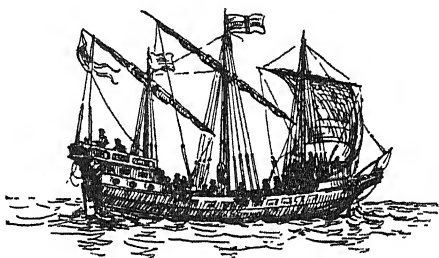
The fact that Cabot failed to find this North-West Passage to India did not stop others from trying. For nearly 400 years since his day, seamen and explorers have tried to get round the north of Canada by sea. We know now that it is impossible to do so, but the story of the various attempts to achieve it is a finer one than any novel.

Englishmen's thoughts were turned to this idea of a short way to China, by a little book written by Sir Humphrey Gilbert about the year 1560. Sir Humphrey ultimately lost his life in trying to prove his theory.

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The first seaman to try to find such a passage was Martin Frobisher, one of England's greatest adventurers on the sea. For fifteen years he tried to interest people in such a venture, but with no success. The day came, however, when his determination brought its reward, and in the year 1576 he was able to set out from Blackwall on his voyage of discovery. He had been furnished with little sailing vessels of a size no bigger than the small boats one sees at the seaside nowadays, and which are used for short trips when the water is calm. In these vessels he proposed to cross the Atlantic Ocean and find a way through the great ice-bound region of Northern Canada. One little vessel, of 25 tons, was called the *Gabriel*, another, of 20 tons, was called the *Michael*, and the third was what is known as a pinnace (a little larger than a rowing boat) of 10 tons. Compare the size of any one of these three vessels with that of the great ocean liners between England and America. The *Lusitania* was a vessel of nearly 50,000 tons!

Nothing daunted by his miserably small vessels, Frobisher set sail. Within a month the pinnace was lost in a great storm, and shortly afterward the *Michael* turned tail and fled home to England, spreading the false report that the *Gabriel*, with Frobisher on board, had sunk with all hands. The *Michael* was not commanded by a man with the stout and fearless heart of



Small Ship of Frobisher's Period

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a Frobisher. So alone the *Gabriel* went on to try for the North-West Passage to China. The little vessel had suffered heavily in the storm which had sunk the pinnacle. The top-mast had been blown away, and the main-mast had sprung, but still her bow pointed west to the unknown, and on the 21st July, 1576,



Frobisher

she arrived off the east coast of Labrador. For some months Frobisher in the little *Gabriel* tried to find a passage through the great bays north of Labrador, but without success. Finally, as part of his crew had got lost on shore and his provisions were falling low, owing to the losses of the pinnacle and the *Michael*, he was forced to return home, bringing as proof of his success a native of Labrador and a piece of stone.

This piece of stone was the cause of two more voyages being made by Frobisher in 1577 and 1578. Getting home, Frobisher had nothing to show those who had supported him with money for his first expedition but this piece of stone. He broke it in pieces and distributed it, one piece going to the wife of one of his best supporters. She thought nothing of it and threw it in the fire. After it had been burnt some time it was seen to glisten, and was taken to some goldsmiths, who found that it was really gold ore. All was excitement now. A new expedition, with Frobisher at the head, was planned, and he was given a vessel called the *Aid*, belonging to Queen

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Elizabeth, together with the *Gabriel* and the *Michael*, with which he had set out on the first voyage. This second and the third voyage failed for the same reason that the first one failed—want of provisions and even fresh water, and the fact that, in such northern parts as Labrador provisions could not be obtained on shore because of the snow and ice. But, though his real effort to find a North-West Passage to India and China had failed, Frobisher is famous for all time as one of England's most daring sailors. He was one of the first Englishmen who sought to conquer the unknown for the glory of England.

Martin Frobisher had only set out to explore. Five years later, Sir Humphrey Gilbert set out to colonize the lands in the north of America, and we are told that Sir Humphrey "was the first of our nation that carried people to erect an habitation and government in those northernly countries of America." England was waking up. The tales of the Spanish successes in South America, of the Portuguese successes in India, and the Dutch successes in the East Indies were having their effect. The tales, told by Martin Frobisher and others, of the great vacant spaces of North America awaiting an owner were teaching Englishmen that, unless they competed for these countries with the Spaniards, Portuguese, Dutch, and French, England would be left behind in the race for empire. They were, in fact, coming to the opinion of Sir Humphrey Gilbert himself, who wrote, at the end of that noble book of his which was written to show that there should be a North-West Passage to China: "He is not worthy to live at all, that for fear or danger of death, shuns his country's service and his own honour

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—seeing death is inevitable, and the fame of virtue immortal.”

The fame of Sir Humphrey Gilbert is immortal, for he fell in his country's service at his first attempt to found England beyond the seas, after a voyage of infinite difficulty, crowded with great dangers. You must remember Sir Humphrey Gilbert as the real founder of the present British Empire, for it was he who first conceived and tried to carry out the idea of settling colonies of English men and women in places out of England



Sir Humphrey Gilbert

It was in 1583 that Sir Humphrey sailed for Newfoundland, or “the Antient and Loyal Colony,” as Newfoundland was called in the old charters. His little fleet consisted of five vessels :

The *Delight* . . . 120 tons. General Sir Humphrey Gilbert.

The *Raleigh* . . . 200 tons. Owned by Sir Walter Raleigh.

The *Golden Hinde* 40 tons. Captain Hays.

The *Swallow* . . . 40 tons. Captain Brown.

The *Squirrel* . . . 10 tons. Captain Andrews.

It is noted by Captain Hays of the *Golden Hinde*, who wrote an account of the voyage, that they had 260 men, including shipwrights, masons, carpenters, smiths, mineral workers, and refiners. And to please

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any savages who might be seen, they took morris dancers, musical instruments, and toys, such as hobby-horses, and plenty of cheap articles—looking-glasses and the like—to trade with. The fleet sailed on the 11th June, 1583, and Sir Humphrey Gilbert landed in Newfoundland, in the harbour of St John's, on the 4th August, 1583. The following day, Monday, the 5th August, 1583, Sir Humphrey "caused his tent to be set up on the side of a hill in the view of all the fleet of English and strangers, which were in number between 30 and 40 vessels. Then, being accompanied by all his captains, masters, gentlemen and soldiers, he caused all to repair to his tent, Englishmen, Spaniards, Portuguese, and others. Then and there in the presence of all he did cause his Commission under the Great Seal of England to be opened and solemnly read unto them, whereby was granted unto him, his heirs and successors by the Queen's most excellent Majesty many large royalties, liberties and privileges. The effect whereof being explained to the strangers by an interpreter, he took possession of the said land of Newfoundland to the Crown of England by digging a sod of turf and receiving with the same a Hazel wand delivered unto him after the manner of the law and custom of England." At the same time he issued three laws or rules: "(1) The religion to be the Church of England. (2) Attempts to interfere with the English ownership would be punishable with death. (3) Dishonouring of the Queen of England's name would result in the cutting off of the ears of the offender, and a loss of all his goods and chattels."

On the 20th August, 1583, Sir Humphrey Gilbert set out with three of his ships to make investigations along

THE STORY OF OUR EMPIRE

the coast. A succession of storms arose, in one of which the principal ship, the *Delight*, carrying the spare stock of provisions, sank with 100 men on board, and the condition of the other two—the *Golden Hinde* and the *Squirrel*, the latter having Sir Humphrey on board—was so bad that on the 31st August, 1583 it was determined to make sail back to England. Now the *Squirrel* was only 10 tons (not much larger than a large rowing boat) while the *Golden Hinde* was a vessel of 40 tons—four times her size and as much safer. So that to ensure Sir Humphrey's safety he was urged not to remain in the *Squirrel* but to get on board the *Golden Hinde*. To his everlasting credit he made reply: "I will not forsake my little company going homeward, with whom I have passed so many storms and perils."

Right across the Atlantic did Sir Humphrey Gilbert keep faith with the men of the *Squirrel*. And when the vessels were about twelve days sail from England a great storm arose, and we are told by one who was on board the *Golden Hinde*: "Monday the 9th of September in the afternoon the *Squirrel* was nearly lost; she was oppressed by waves but recovered at the time. And giving forth signs of joy the General (Sir Humphrey Gilbert) sitting aloft the *Squirrel* with a book in his hand, cried unto us in the *Golden Hinde*, as often as we approached within hearing: 'WE ARE AS NEAR TO HEAVEN BY SEA AS BY LAND.'" These were the last words the great Sir Humphrey Gilbert was heard ever to utter, for the same night the little *Squirrel* was engulfed in the seas and all on board were lost. So perished a Christian man, the first to attempt the foundation of an English colony, the founder of the British Empire.

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Longfellow made Sir Humphrey Gilbert's brave end the subject of one of his poems. You will note how finely it describes the little craft being caught among a 'fleet' of icebergs, and its remains carried southward till the ice melted in the warm waters of the Gulf Stream.

SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT

SOUTHWARD with fleet of ice
Sailed the corsair Death ;
Wild and fast blew the blast,
And the east-wind was his breath.

His lordly ships of ice
Glisten in the sun ;
On each side, like pennons wide,
Flashing crystal streamlets run.

His sails of white sea-mist
Dripped with silver rain ;
But where he passed there were cast
Leaden shadows o'er the main.

Eastward from Campobello
Sir Humphrey Gilbert sailed ;
Three days or more seaward he bore,
Then, alas ! the land-wind failed.

Alas ! the land-wind failed,
And ice-cold grew the night ;
And never more, on sea or shore,
Should Sir Humphrey see the light.

He sat upon the deck,
The Book was in his hand ;
"Do not fear ! Heaven is as near,"
He said, "by water as by land !"

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In the first watch of the night,
Without a signal's sound,
Out of the sea, mysteriously,
The fleet of Death rose all around.

The moon and the evening star
Were hanging in the shrouds ;
Every mast, as it passed,
Seemed to rake the passing clouds.

They grappled with their prize,
At midnight black and cold !
As of a rock was the shock ;
Heavily the ground-swell rolled.

Southward through day and dark
They drift in close embrace,
With mist and rain o'er the open main ;
Yet there seems no change of place.

Southward, for ever southward,
They drift through dark and day ;
And like a dream, in the Gulf-Stream
Sinking, vanish all away.

The failure of Frobisher to prove that a North-West Passage to China must exist round Canada did not by any means discourage the efforts of English seamen to find one. We have only space to refer to one other great Englishman who tried to find such a passage—John Davis. If you will look at a map of Canada you will see a great stretch of sea called Davis Straits. It is named after John Davis, who made three voyages in the years 1585, 1586 and 1587 respectively, of such extent that he was able to declare proudly that, as regards the north-west parts of America, he had had the “most experience of any in our age.”

Davis failed, as others failed before him and as all

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others have failed since, because there is no such passage. But Davis sailed farther along the north coast of Canada than any man of his time or for many a long year afterward. In small sailing vessels subject to the direction of the wind, sailing amid countless islands and rocks, through narrow channels in which hidden rocks might lie, to strike one of which meant the sinking of the vessel and death to the crew, the sea crowded with great icebergs and the land covered with snow or bare rocks, the feats of these sailors of old were almost miracles. And when their voyages were over they told little more of their efforts than is recorded in the following letter of John Davis, written after landing from his third voyage :

GOOD MR SANDERSON,—With God's mercy I have made my safe return in health, with all my company, and have sailed threescore leagues further than my determination at departure. I have been in 73 degrees, finding the sea all open and forty leagues between land and sea. The passage is most probable, execution easy, as at my coming you shall fully know.

Yesterday, the 15th of September, I landed all weary ; therefore I pray you pardon my shortness.

Yours equal as mine own,

JOHN DAVIS

“ Little talk and great deeds ” was the unwritten motto of these great explorers, exploring for England's sake. You have read something of what they accomplished. You have before you the result, not finished yet by any means, in the British Empire.

But these efforts of Frobisher, Gilbert, and Davis

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almost went for nothing in the early days. The great bulk of Englishmen had not yet realized what the value of a British Empire would be, and for many years this part of North America was sadly neglected. In one respect, however, Newfoundland was greatly to the fore, as it is to-day—that is, in the matter of fishing. Off the coast of Newfoundland lies what is known as ‘the Banks,’ a great stretch of fairly shallow water teeming with fish, mainly cod. Fishing is one of the best paying of businesses, and quite early in the history of these far-off lands the fishers of all the countries of Europe went to the Banks to fish. John Cabot, the discoverer of Newfoundland, said that his ships were often stopped, the fish were so many. The following is perhaps the first description of these Banks :

“Before we came to Newfoundland, about 150 miles from it, we passed the Bank, which are high grounds within the sea, but all under the water, the depth being about 180 ft. The Bank is about 30 miles wide. During the time of fishing (April to July) you always know when you are on the Bank, by the great number of sea birds flying over it, to prey on the dead fish and offal thrown out by fishermen which float on the sea. The French and the Portuguese are the principal fishers, and sometimes over 100 of their vessels can be seen.”

Another writer—Anthony Parkhurst, of Bristol—notes that he has seen over 350 vessels there, chiefly not British. But with due pride of race he notes that the English “commonly are lords of the harbour where they fish and do make all foreigners keep from fishing if needed, according to an old custom of Englishmen, which keep is given willingly . . . for protection against pirates.” And there is a good story told by one of

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these early voyagers (in 1536) of how he and his companions were starving in a ship called the *Minion*, off Newfoundland. So little had they to eat that they had cast lots amongst themselves as to which of them should be killed and eaten that the rest might live. "And such was the mercy of God," the story goes on dryly, "that the same night there arrived a French ship with plenty of food on board, and such was the policy of the English, that they took the French ship, put the Frenchmen on board the English ship, and had the French ship for themselves." The sequel to this deed came later. The Frenchmen by great efforts got back to England in the English ship, and went and complained to the English king. He seems to have been tickled with the grim joke of changing ships, and rather than punish the English sailors, gave the Frenchmen money from his own purse.

The Newfoundlanders have always been most loyal to the Motherland, and history tells us that Newfoundland fishing ships bore their share manfully during the battle with the Spanish Armada, having given up their annual fishing season to help the Homeland. And in modern times the same hardy race helped in a wonderful manner in the Great War, no fewer than 10,000 men offering their services to fight against the Central Powers—a goodly proportion when it is realized that the entire population is about that of our own city of Bradford.

The natives of our oldest colony tell us that we do not understand Newfoundland as we should, and several popular myths in regard to the place were exploded by Sir Edgar Bowring, the High Commissioner, in a speech made in London in March, 1919.

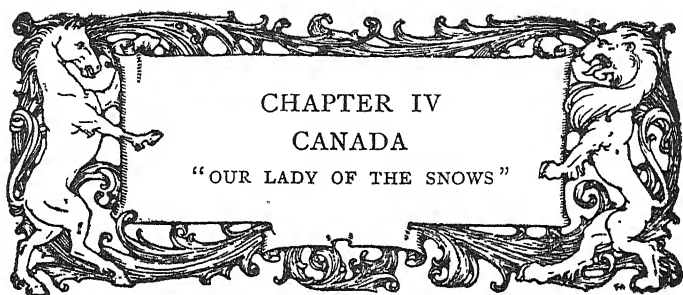
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“ Newfoundland is not amongst the fogs and ice,” said Sir Edgar. “ There is a general belief that we have fogs. I have lived there most of my life, and the majority of the fogs don’t come within 100 miles of our coasts.

“ On the north and east coasts fogs do come to the land,” he admitted ; “ but 80 miles inland such a thing as a fog is unknown.

“ The climate of the island is generally very mild—cold in the winter but infinitely more sunshine than you have over here.

“ The people there enjoy all the necessities of life, most of its comforts, and many of its luxuries.”



THE great stretch of country known as Canada—an empire within an empire—spreads across the continent of North America. On the east the bleak, lonely shores of Labrador face the icy currents of the Atlantic Ocean coming from the North Pole, giving almost permanent snow and ice to this section of Canada, while on the west the slopes of the Rocky Mountains lead down through beautiful scenery to the mild waters of the Pacific Ocean. Washed by the waters of the Atlantic on one side and by the Pacific on the other, bounded on the north by endless and eternal fields of ice and snow, Canada has every variety of climate. To those who live under climates of more even conditions, the Canadian winter must be particularly noticeable. It inspired Mr Rudyard Kipling to entitle a poem on Canada, *Our Lady of the Snows*. Canadians say that the description is misleading and something of a libel, that Canada is one of the greatest wheat-growing countries of the world, and a great horse-breeding country, and that nowhere in the wide world can man find a better climate for work all the year round.

THE STORY OF OUR EMPIRE

Canada is a country of enormous size. It has an area of over 3,750,000 square miles, being much larger than the whole continent of Europe and more than thirty times larger than the United Kingdom. The accompanying map shows Great Britain and Ireland lying upon Canada, and it explains much better than



Canada compared with the United Kingdom

words what a vast country Canada is, and how much larger than our own.

At the time of the discoveries narrated in the previous chapter, Queen Elizabeth was on the throne of England, and her thoughts as well as those of her leading seamen—Drake, Raleigh, Hawkins, and others—were all toward the warmer places to the south of the newly discovered lands where the Spaniards had established themselves. The coast of Labrador with its snow and ice, and wonderful white bears, as reported by the Cabots, had no attraction for them. After the return



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of the Bristol explorers little or no attention was given to the North.

The French, however, were much more enterprising, and had no intention of letting this newly found land go begging, even if it was a cold place, and so it came about that our nearest neighbour was the first to send settlers to this part of Canada. In 1534 a Frenchman named Jacques Cartier set sail toward the west, touched the island of Newfoundland, and discovered that part of Canada which to-day is known as New Brunswick. In the following year he again sailed from France for the same place, and in the name of Francis I, King of France, took possession of the country and hoisted the French flag. Another French explorer, Samuel de Champlain, took up Cartier's work in the year 1603, and a few years later founded the city of Quebec as the capital of New France.

Canada's own historians give the year 1617 as the date of the first settlement, and in 1917 was celebrated at Quebec the tercentenary of the first farmer-settler. He was Louis Herbert, an apothecary of Paris, who left France and first set foot in Canada in 1617 with his wife and children, and at once began to clear and cultivate the wild woodland on the site now occupied by the Cathedral and Upper Town of Quebec. His only tool was a spade, with which he worked the soil until it was ready for the seeds and fruit trees brought from France ; and he seems to have lived comfortably on the produce of his labours.

A large number of people went from France to this new colony, and the French people tried to make it a prosperous one. Many of these settlers were old and retired soldiers of France, who secured grants of land

THE STORY OF OUR EMPIRE

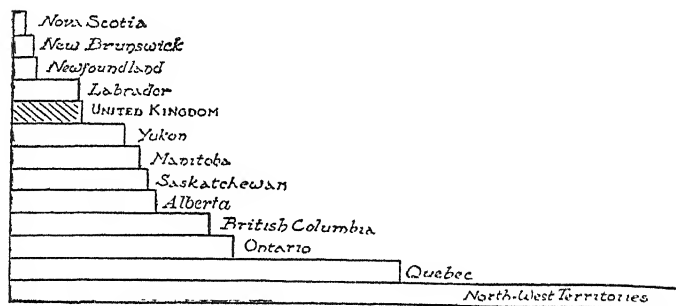
in the new country as a reward for their services in battle. They tried to establish friendly relations with the Indians or Redskins who lived in Canada before any white man set foot there. There were no fixed boundaries to English, French, and Dutch territories in those early days of emigrants ; each tried his hardest to extend his lands and each desired to obtain the help of the natives. Little fights between the settlers were frequent, and as most of the French emigrants were old soldiers, it is easy to understand why they were usually successful in these little wars.

Now if you look at a map of North America you will see that there are three great out-falls of rivers—the St Lawrence in Canada, the Hudson at New York, and the Mississippi in the Gulf of Mexico. It must be understood that we are now dealing with a period before the days of railways, a time when rivers were largely used for transport in every country. Rivers were then most important, and as you may expect, the localities of the three rivers mentioned were the first places to which settlers went. The French, as we have seen, settled on the St Lawrence, and built the towns of Quebec and Montreal. The Dutch settled on the Hudson and founded New Amsterdam (now New York), while other settlers took possession of the mouth of the Mississippi, at about the spot where the town of New Orleans is situated. The English, not arriving until the best places had been taken up, were forced to settle in what is now Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania, and had to fight the French and the Dutch to retain even these places. The Dutch were beaten very easily, and in 1664 the town of New Amsterdam was taken from them and renamed New York (after the Duke of

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York, brother of Charles II, King of England). By this victory the English settlers got a firm hold on the coast-line south of what is now Canada, and were more or less content with this for some years.

The French, more restless and venturesome than the English, and on better terms with the Redskins, wandered inland along the St Lawrence and the great



Areas of Canadian Provinces compared with the United Kingdom

lakes—Superior, Ontario, and Michigan. They discovered the rivers Illinois and Wisconsin, and found the upper waters of the Mississippi and followed its course down to its mouth, where they founded the town of New Orleans. By the year 1680 they had taken possession of this vast country in the name of Louis XIV.

Having thus established themselves very securely, as they thought, they commenced a series of little wars with the English settlers, with the firm intention of driving them out of North America altogether. But the numbers of English settlers increased each year and the French began to get a little alarmed. These

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little wars were not very serious, and not one of them was recognized as involving the mother countries. The respective governments thought that, as the troubles were made by the settlers themselves, they might end them without interference. But as showing how world-wide the British Empire was becoming, and how affairs at one place could affect another far away, it may be mentioned that in 1745 the English Volunteer Forces around New York advanced and took a strong French fortress called Louisburg, which was situated near Cape Breton, at the mouth of the St Lawrence river. Three years later a peace between France and England was concluded, and part of the treaty was that we were to give back Louisburg in Canada to the French in return for the undisputed possession of Madras in India.

We now reach a time when the destiny of North America was to be finally settled. Was it to be French or English? In 1756 a war broke out between France and England, known as the War of the Spanish Succession, because the quarrel arose upon a difference of opinion as to who should sit upon the throne of Spain. From Europe the war extended to the colonies, and the French thought that an opportunity had come to drive the English from North America. Accordingly France sent to the assistance of the French colonists a famous general—Montcalm—and 1200 picked soldiers. Being too busy elsewhere, the English could at first spare no troops to oppose Montcalm, and for a time the latter was highly successful. But in the year following, 1757, a young man became Prime Minister of England who had a very strong way with him, and the ability to see far into the heart of things. This was William Pitt,

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afterward Earl of Chatham. He saw the real importance of France's efforts in North America; saw that if she succeeded England would lose a country which in the future would be of great importance to her. He saw also that if France won North America for herself, her power in Europe would be greatly increased.

In 1758, therefore, the first steps were taken to oppose the French with English troops sent out from England. No less than 26,000 men were to be under arms in America, and Pitt undertook to fit out 25,000 colonial troops in addition, leaving the colony concerned to pay them their wages. The English commander was General Amherst, but he was not a very brilliant man, and although he took the fortress of Louisburg soon after his arrival in Canada, one of his subordinates with 16,000 men was disgracefully beaten by the French. Among those who went out with Amherst



General Wolfe

was a young man named James Wolfe. Only thirty-one years of age, he was already a colonel and—a proof of his real capacity—already the subject of hostile criticism in England. Someone ventured on a criticism of Wolfe to the King—George II—alleging that if not stupid he was mad. “Mad, is he?” retorted the King; “then I hope he will bite some of my generals.” Pale of face, with a lanky body and upturned nose, it must be said that he did not look the popular figure of a soldier. But genius is often found in odd-shaped people, and within that frail body were a heart of iron and nerves of steel. Wolfe

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was already an experienced officer, as he had seen active service in other countries.

The first expedition having failed, Wolfe was sent back to England for reinforcements. A few months later he returned to Canada with a force of 10,000 men and the rank of Major-General. The plan of attack laid down by General Amherst for this second campaign was that he should advance from the south over the ground where the reverse above mentioned had taken place, while Wolfe was to attack the French at Quebec. The efforts of both were completely successful. Montcalm, the French general, was defeated by Wolfe on the Heights of Abraham, near Quebec, in 1759, and the French resistance collapsed entirely. In 1763 peace was signed between France and England, and in the Treaty of Paris the former yielded all her possessions in North America to England.

The taking of Quebec by Wolfe will live for ever in the minds of Englishmen. Quebec stands on the bank of the River St Lawrence, on a rock over 300 feet above the level of the water, and it is a natural fortress. The British forces were taken up the river in the ships in which they had come from England, a fine feat of seamanship, for as the French Governor of Quebec put it in a letter of explanation to the French Government in Paris, "the enemy have passed 60 ships of war where we dare not risk a vessel of 100 tons by night or day." For three days the British forces were on a small island near Quebec, with the ships at anchor near by. One night, as the soldiers were keeping watch, one of the cannons at Quebec was heard, and very soon flames were seen floating on the surface of the water. A number of old ships had been obtained, covered with

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tar and oil, loaded with explosives, and set alight. The French, however, had fired them too early, and many burnt out and exploded before they reached the English ships. Those of the fire vessels that did get near were pushed on to the shore by sailors, who rowed out to them in boats, using long iron rods to push the vessels away. Thus the attempt to destroy the British ships was a failure.

Wolfe decided to take his army on to the mainland and commence operations, which he did with the most disastrous results. He lost about 450 men, including 30 officers, and then decided to retreat, and to attack again later at another point.

His next plan was to feign a night attack by the warships, and while the enemy was occupied with this, to lead his army up a steep and unguarded path which he had discovered. The ruse was successful. When the booming of the guns from the British ships signalled the opening of the feint attack, Wolfe started. During the night, the soldiers were taken in small boats across the river to the foot of the path, so as to be ready to scale the rock and capture it in the morning. Wolfe and his officers proceeded slowly down the river, the boom of the guns sounding in their ears, drifting toward a battle on which the fate of an empire rested—for that is what the outcome was to mean. General Wolfe was heard by the officers who were with him to be repeating a verse from his favourite poem, Gray's *Elegy in a Country Churchyard* :

The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour ;
The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

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The officers who heard it looked at Wolfe in amazement. He, noticing their wonderment, said very calmly: "Gentlemen, I would rather have written those lines than take Quebec."

Wolfe and his party narrowly escaped capture that night. On their way they passed a French sentry, who challenged them. One of Wolfe's officers, a Highlander, who spoke French very fluently, replied: "France." It was too dark to see the invaders' uniforms, and the Highlander carried on a conversation in the most perfect French with the sentry, who was completely deceived. "Hush," was the sentry's parting remark. "Don't talk so loud or make a noise or the English will be upon us."

A small party volunteered to lead the way up the rock to the fortress, and on its way it passed a small encampment. The officer in charge, however, was asleep, and the sentries were too much interested in the attack being made by the ships on the river to notice them, little dreaming that there were about 3000 British soldiers a little lower down awaiting the command to advance.

Early the next morning the last grand assault on Quebec began. Wolfe led the attack, but before he had gone very far a bullet hit him in the wrist. He calmly wrapped his handkerchief around the wound and continued to advance. Later, two more bullets hit him, one causing a bad wound in the chest. The gallant commander then fell, and later was carried into a place of safety at the rear, where he lay in a swoon for some time.

Recovering consciousness, he heard one of the officers cry out: "They run! see how they run!"

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“ Who runs ? ” demanded Wolfe. “ The enemy, sir,” said the officer. Wolfe smiled, gave instructions for cutting off the retreat and for the final defeat of the French, and died, his last words being : “ God be praised ! I die in peace.”

Thus by the battle of Quebec (1759) the English won North America (including what is now known as the United States) for their own, and the whole of this vast continent would no doubt be under the English flag to-day if it had not come about by the blundering of the Government of George III that the settlers in New York and Boston and places farther south were incited to throw off their connexion with England. It is no part of our story to describe how the United States of America came into being, and all that need be said is that the southern part of the continent of North America became independent in the year 1776.

At the time of the French occupation, towns with French names were common, and Canada itself was known as New France, a name that did not please the English. But why Canada now ? It came about in this way. When white men set foot in the New World, this part of it was inhabited by seven tribes of Red Indians, one of which bore the name of Iroquois. This tribe was the most friendly to the English, and naturally the English picked up some of the Iroquois names. ‘ Canada ’ is one of them, and is said to mean ‘ Nothing,’ and that is the reason why the territory was given the name it now bears. But why ‘ Nothing ’ ? The origin of the word is very strange. The Spaniards visited there previous to the French, searching for gold and silver. Finding none, they often said among themselves : “ *Acanada*,” meaning, “ There is nothing here.”

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The Indians, who watched closely, learned this sentence and its meaning. Then came the French, and the Indians, who did not want them, supposing they had come on the same mission as the Spanish, kept repeating in their ears the Spanish word, "*Acanada*." The French, who knew as little of the Spanish language as they, supposed that the incessantly recurring sound was the name of the country, and ultimately christened it Canada, which name it has borne ever since.

You must not think that by the Peace of Paris (1763) the whole of Canada, as we now know it, came at once under the British flag. Far from it. There were at the time thousands of miles of unexplored territory which no white man had ever seen, and many years passed before those who were responsible knew very much about the vast extent of the land in their charge. Even to-day there are great areas waiting to be populated, the Canadian Government still having millions of acres to give to intending settlers.

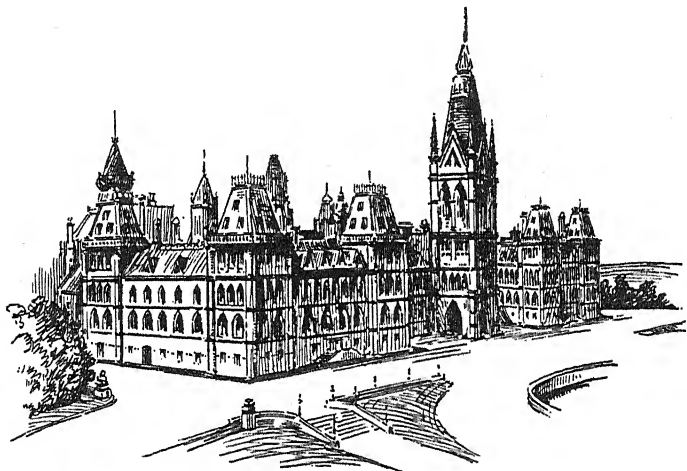
Canada, however, has continued to grow very rapidly, and its history since we won it would fill a very large book. Only a very few facts need be given a place here: Ottawa was made the capital in August, 1858; First Canadian Parliament opened, June, 1866; Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick united and known as the Dominion of Canada, 1867; British Columbia added to the Dominion 1871; Canadian Pacific Railway from Montreal to Vancouver completed 1885, and the great rush to the Klondyke gold fields, December, 1897.

To Queen Victoria Canada owes the selection of Ottawa as the capital of the Dominion, a town with a population of about 90,000, but only 24,000 in 1871. With the union of Upper and Lower Canada, there arose

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rival claims for the honour, and the Queen was asked to arbitrate. Her Majesty chose Ottawa because of the beauty of its site, its central position, and its remoteness from the United States frontier.

Canada has been blessed with many excellent Prime Ministers, and one of the most popular of them was



Parliament House, Ottawa

the late Sir Wilfrid Laurier, who was often credited with authority far beyond the limits of the Dominion. The mention of Queen Victoria recalls an amusing story about Sir Wilfrid. It is related that some years ago an illiterate old Canadian visited Ottawa from his home in the country, and got into conversation with a friend whom he met there. In the course of their talk the name of Queen Victoria was mentioned, and the old countryman was astonished to hear that her Majesty was dead.

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"Dead!" he exclaimed. "Then who has taken her place?"

"The Prince of Wales has now become King Edward VII," he was told.

"By George!" cried the countryman, with a sharp whistle. "The Prince must have had a lot of influence with Sir Wilfrid Laurier to get a big job like that!"

Canada's sons rallied to the flag in a whole-hearted manner during the Great War. On 1st August, 1914, three days before war was declared, the Canadian Prime Minister sent a secret message to the Motherland offering to raise a force of 100,000 men. The offer was accepted, and at once Canada responded nobly. A millionaire citizen of Montreal made a present to the Empire of a famous corps afterward known as 'Princess Pat's,' after the daughter of the Duke of Connaught, who was at the time Governor-General of Canada. The regiment was raised, armed and equipped inside a week. It originally consisted of 1001 officers and men. The odd man was a huge frontiersman from the Far West, who, travelling night and day, arrived too late for enlistment, but he was allowed to have a place because, so it is said, nobody had the heart to refuse him. On 14th October the Canadians arrived in England on their way to France, and they were early in the field at the front, where at Ypres, Festubert, Givenchy and other places they made history. Others followed in their thousands, and shortly before the close of the war there were over 400,000 Canadians in France and 60,000 more in training. There was a friendly rivalry between the various cities and provinces of the Dominion in regard to recruiting. Toronto claims premier place, but it is closely followed by

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Edmonton, in Alberta, and Ottawa is not far behind—*i.e.* of course, taking population into account. The 66th Regiment from Edmonton claims the Empire's record in respect of quick recruiting, having enlisted 1100 men in eleven days.

British Columbia is said to hold the record for sending more men to the Allied armies than any other division of the Empire of Great Britain. In one month 1200 men came up the Fraser river from points on the old Cariboo Trail to join the regiment there. Wallachin, a town on the trail, sent 47 men to the front out of 67 eligible citizens of the town. Vancouver sent 10,000 men out of its population of 110,000. Prince Rupert went over this ratio. Every settlement in British Columbia had its soldier in the ranks.

Toronto is near the boundary between the United States and Canada. The Canadians call their neighbours 'Yanks,' as many other people do, while the Americans refer to the Canadians as 'Canukes.'

Montreal is the commercial gate of Canada. Although about three-quarters of its population is French, some three-quarters of its trade is in the hands of Britons.

The real home of the French Canadian, however, is at Quebec, where are large and important remnants of the original French settlement. The French Canadians are loyal to the British-Canadian flag, though of course they have a warm spot in their hearts for their beloved France.

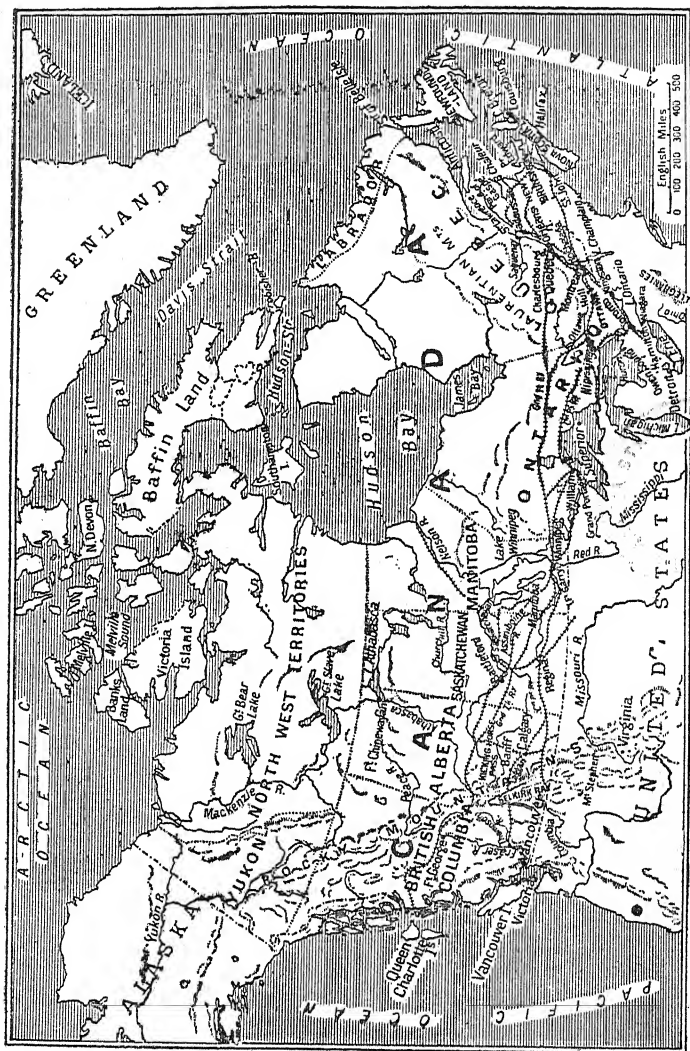
Far away on the other (western) side of Canada are the Rockies—the great North-West, often called the Great Lone Land. Years ago this region was the home of the Indian and the buffalo. To-day it is the home

THE STORY OF OUR EMPIRE

of the cowboy, 300,000 square miles of it being available for ranching. Thirty years ago there were not a thousand Britons in the whole district, but early in the present century more than a hundred thousand were going there each year.

Cowboys and ranches are dear to the hearts of most lads, few of whom know the story of their origin in Canada. In October, 1873, there was in this wild district a military or police outpost known as Fort Macleod. It was the headquarters of the Britons whose duty it was to put down Indian risings. As Englishmen, knowing the police had quarters in the district, pushed as far as they could into the unknown, a little town called Macleod sprang up. The police had with them their horses, two cows, and a few yoke of oxen for their own use, but there were no other cattle. In 1876 the townspeople were surprised to see a new settler—John B. Smith by name—coming into the town with one bull, fourteen cows, and ten calves. Smith was in need of money and sold his stock to a policeman, who, having no time to look after them, turned them loose. Off they went, nobody knew exactly where. The next year two policemen saw some oxen about and started a 'round up'—the first of its kind in Canada. They found not only the twenty-five, but many others, the number having increased. Thus the industry started, and to-day the slopes of the Rockies are huge ranches, about 200,000,000 acres being devoted to the rearing of cattle.

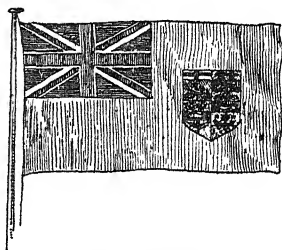
Canada is intensely patriotic, for although 1,000,000 Canadians with British names have never seen Britain, and a like number are of French descent, the British spirit permeates the continent, and the Motherland



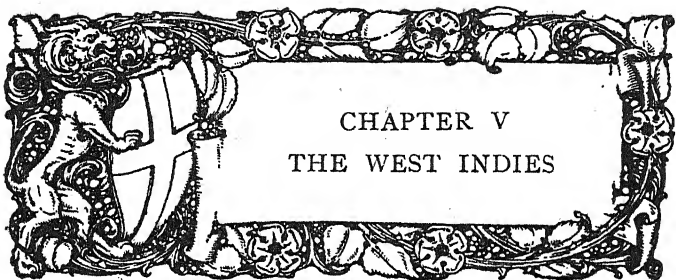
The Dominion of Canada

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has every reason to be proud of it. Toronto, the capital town of Ontario province, is the most British-like place in the colony. One authority tells us that the people are so impregnated with patriotism that they want to wear shirt-fronts made of the Union Jack. One sees the flag everywhere, and on an ordinary day one may see as many Union Jacks flying as on a gala day or Royal birthday in England. One reason for this love of Britain is that the people are largely the descendants of the loyal Britons who resisted the Americans when they attempted to seize Canada in 1812.



Flag of Canada



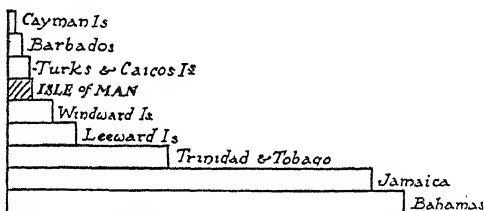
THE West Indies—so named in 1492 by Columbus, who believed them to be a part of India—are a number of islands, some of them mere useless rocks, situated in the great bay known as the Gulf of Mexico, which nearly cuts North and South America into two parts.

The West Indies, so far as they are British, may be said to be a legacy to the Empire from the British Navy of the past. Although the Empire is based on English command of the seas, the extension of territory has not been directly due to our naval forces—although they made extension possible—but to land agencies such as the Army, missionaries, and traders. But the West Indies are the peculiar province of the Navy. They have been a lure to every navy in the world in days gone by, when there were only sailing vessels, probably because the wind blows steadily in one direction or another for prolonged spells, and the islands give sound and safe anchorage to sailing ships. Some of the great naval battles of the world have been fought in its waters, while it was in returning from a chase to the West Indies

THE STORY OF OUR EMPIRE

that Nelson fought and won the battle of Trafalgar in 1805.

This question of the winds, it may be said in passing, gives characteristic names to the islands known generally as the West Indies. The main wind is known as the south-easterly trade-wind—that is, a wind blowing constantly for months on end from the south-east toward the north-west. A place is to windward if



West Indies compared with the Isle of Man

to reach it you have to sail against the wind, while a place is said to be to leeward if to reach it you sail with the wind. Accordingly, if you look at a map of the West Indies you will find nearly all the smaller islands divided into two groups, known as the Windward and the Leeward Islands.

Spain, and the seamen of Queen Elizabeth, play important parts in the history of the West Indies. In Elizabeth's reign English sailors developed a strong love for adventure, and the Queen herself encouraged and aided them in their efforts to reach far-off lands. The English Government had at that time only forty ships, but as time went on merchant ships were hired or bought and made into men-of-war.

Sir John Hawkins was one of the first and most daring of these adventurers, although he has incurred the

THE WEST INDIES

odium of having started the slave trade. It is said that he used to capture the poor negroes on the west coast of Africa (1563 has been named as the year and Sierra Leone as the exact spot) and carry them across to the newly found West Indies, where the Spaniards were settling and where labour was badly needed. There he sold them to people who needed workers on the sugar and other plantations.

Hawkins frequently quarrelled with the Spaniards, and at the time of the Armada was an admiral of the British fleet, stationed between Land's End and the Scilly Isles.

Another great sailor of the age was Sir Francis Drake, who hated the Spaniards, perhaps more than any other person has done, chiefly because of their cruelties and their religion. He was annoyed, too, that they should have so many possessions in the West Indies, and used to lie in wait for Spanish ships as they came, richly laden, from America.

Drake believed that it was a religious duty to fight the Spaniard, and he used to speak of his victories as "singeing the King of Spain's beard." He helped to defeat the Armada, and was a friend of Sir John Hawkins. In the year 1595 the two set off to crush the power of the Spaniards in the West Indies, but before anything could be done Hawkins died at Porto Rico, and Drake at Porto Bello.

Sir Walter Raleigh was another famous seaman of the period, who loved to sail west in search of new lands. It was while in the West Indies that he found tobacco and potatoes, and brought them to England. The potatoes he planted in his own garden in Ireland, which has been a famous potato land ever since. You

THE STORY OF OUR EMPIRE

will, however, read more about these famous seamen later on, their names being closely connected with the New World.

One does not as a rule associate Lord Nelson with the West Indies, but it must not be forgotten that he did good work there. He was ordered to Jamaica in 1777, when he was second lieutenant on the *Lowestoft*, soon becoming noticeable for his bravery. He visited the West Indies again, as captain of the *Boreas*, in 1785, and it was on this visit that he went to the island of Nevis, where he met Mrs Frances (Fanny) Nisbet, niece of the President of the island, a lady he afterward married, and who became Viscountess Nelson and Duchess of Brontë.

This part of the world was the home of the modern slave trade. I say 'modern' because slaves were known in ancient and Bible days, when the Chaldeans, Greeks, Egyptians, and Romans employed them. The West Indies were, of course, unknown at that time. The discovery of the New World necessitated the importation of labourers, and the employment of African slaves seemed to be the only way out of these early difficulties. The slave trade was at its height in the West Indies in the eighteenth century. In 1744 many children were seized in Aberdeenshire and sent to work on the plantations of the West Indies. The movement to abolish slavery was started by Clarkson and Wilberforce in 1782, and in 1807 an Act was passed by the British Parliament forbidding the slave trade in new colonies. Two years later the Act was made to include all British possessions. Thus slavery within the Empire was put an end to, and eventually, in 1833, slaveholders were paid £20,000,000 to free their slaves.

THE WEST INDIES

Many of the labourers now, especially in Trinidad, are coolies from East India ; 300,000 of them went to the West Indies between 1835 and 1890.

Of the 100,000 square miles of territory in this immense island region, Britain owns 12,300, not reckoning the colonies of British Guiana and Honduras, which are not actually in the archipelago but on the eastern side of the mainland. A few of the larger islands are independent, and others are owned by America, France, Holland, Denmark, and Venezuela. The Spaniards, who discovered this part of the world, own not even a square yard of it to-day.

In the early days sailing vessels formed a ready means of trade among the numerous islands, and the Spaniards began quite early to develop the islands known as the Leewards, while the French and British paid more attention to the Windward group. Spain had the big islands, the French and ourselves the smaller ones.

These islands, under a tropical sky and with a beautiful climate, rapidly developed into one of the most fruitful and wealthy parts of the earth, the envy of the nations who for many years contested for the prize. And it is estimated by competent authorities that the British share of them cost the lives of about 500,000 soldiers and sailors. In the five years from 1793 to 1798, no less than 100,000 men lost their lives in the service of England and these small colonies. A great military writer says : " Field officers, captains, lieutenants, ensigns, sergeants, corporals, drummers, rank and file of battalion after battalion, lie there row upon row, as if on parade," killed, not by shot and shell, but by a deadly disease known as yellow fever.

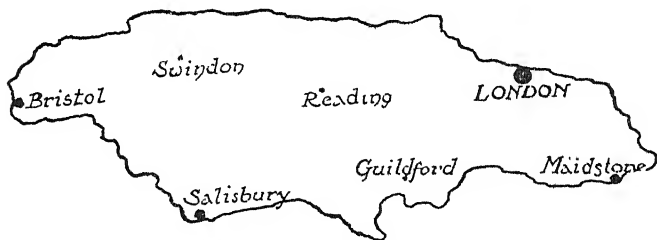
THE STORY OF OUR EMPIRE

It was surely of such places that Rudyard Kipling wrote :

On the bones of the English
The English flag is stayed.

Looked at from what may be termed a chronological point of view, the history of this part of the world, as far as it concerns the British Empire, may be put thus : In the year 1625 the Barbados became English, seven years later Bermuda followed, the Leeward Islands, Bahamas, and Jamaica bringing the date to 1655. Matters then rested for about a hundred years, when, from 1763 to 1783, the Windward Islands were gradually added to the Empire, Trinidad in 1797. Afterward came the mainland territories, British Honduras (1798) and Guiana (1803-14).

JAMAICA.—The island of Jamaica is the largest and most valuable of our territories in this part of the



Jamaica laid upon England

world. The name, in the language of the original natives, means 'the land of springs.' In length it measures 144 miles, and in breadth, at its widest part, about 50 miles. Its total area is 4207 square miles, or about one-eighth the size of Ireland.

Columbus discovered the island on 3rd May, 1494,

THE WEST INDIES

when the name of St Jago was given to it. It was, however, not until 1509 that the Spaniards took possession of it. They held the place for a hundred and forty-six years, and their rule was most disastrous. They were cruel to the natives, and when they left there was not a single aboriginal inhabitant remaining. It was in 1626 that a British fleet, under the command of Sir Anthony Shirley, captured the town of St Jago, which was then the capital. The British held the town for thirty years, after which the whole island was taken possession of by General Venables and an army sent out by Oliver Cromwell (1655). There was no fighting, as the people did not seem to object to the change. The Government, however, was a little annoyed, but in 1670 a formal agreement made at Madrid confirmed the British in their possession of the island.

For many years Jamaica had a very sparse population, and prosperity did not come to the place owing to lack of labour. Cromwell sent out a governor and about 1000 troops, and these were followed very soon by 1000 Irishmen and 1500 other settlers from Barbados, Bermuda, Nevis, and New England. Ten years after the landing of this host of settlers the sugar-growing industry was commenced, and when the trade increased, the attention of the sugar-planters was directed toward the employment of slaves.

Jamaica became one of the headquarters of the slave trade, and the early prosperity of the island was due largely to the employment of slaves in the plantations. Later, when the traffic was abolished by Act of Parliament, the planters were greatly annoyed and, as the American laws permitted the use of slaves, threatened that they would ask the Americans to take the island

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from the British. England remained firm, and after many little quarrels the trouble vanished. The trade of the island, however, also vanished for a time, and people doubted whether the place would ever become prosperous again. During recent years, however, trade has improved, and great progress is being made, especially in the sugar-growing districts, which were almost ruined when slavery was abolished.

The island to-day has quite an England-like look on the map, it being divided into three parts, Cornwall, Middlesex, and Surrey. Kingston (4000 miles and 14 days' journey from London) is now the capital, Port Royal, the first capital, having been destroyed by an earthquake in 1692. Among the many things we receive from the colony are rum, oranges, bananas, ginger, coffee, and tobacco. America is the island's best customer, the States taking three-fifths of the exports, and England only one-eighth.

TRINIDAD.—Next to Jamaica our largest possession in the West Indies is Trinidad, which is only seven miles from the mainland of South America (Venezuela). It is 69 miles in length and 34 in breadth, the area being twelve times that of the Isle of Wight, or say the same size as Lancashire.

Columbus discovered Trinidad in 1498, and Spanish settlers went there just as they did to Jamaica. The island was made an important victualling station for Spanish ships. Sir Walter Raleigh attacked the island during one of his voyages because, as we were at war with Spain, it was the right thing to do, but the Spaniards on the island held their own. The Spanish people, however, did not go to the island in the large numbers it was expected they would, and in order to

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increase its population the King of Spain, in 1783, offered free land to every Catholic who would go. This offer tempted settlers of many nationalities, but Frenchmen outnumbered all others.

During the wars of the French Revolution (1797), Trinidad was captured by a British force under Sir Ralph Abercrombie and Admiral Harvey, and when peace was proclaimed five years later, England was allowed to retain possession. After this, an unusually large number of settlers went to Trinidad from Ireland and Scotland, and ever since that time the island has been making rapid progress in productiveness.

The chief town and port is Port of Spain, one of the finest towns in the West Indies. A feature of the island is a pitch lake, 110 acres in extent, and apparently inexhaustible, hundreds of thousands of tons of pitch being taken from it each year without making the slightest apparent difference. Other exports are petroleum, sugar, cocoa, coco-nuts, rum, and timber.

With the Crown colony of Trinidad goes the little island of Tobago, which lies twenty miles away, and is about the size of the Isle of Wight.

THE BAHAMAS.—The Bahamas are the most northerly of the West Indies. They consist of about 3000 low coral islets, rocks and banks, but only some twenty of the islands are inhabited. The five principal ones are New Providence, Bahama, Long Island, Eleuthera (famous for its pine-apples) and St Salvador. The latter is the first place sighted by Columbus in the New World in 1492. The capital and the only town of any real importance is Nassau, which is on the New Providence Island. Although the islands were discovered by Columbus, the Spaniards took no interest

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in them, thinking them perhaps too scattered, and being in search of larger territories. The English, however, got to hear of them, and in 1629 a party of settlers went out and settled down comfortably on the spot where Nassau now is. The success of the British rather annoyed the Spaniards when they heard of the excellent sponges and other things that were being obtained there, and twelve years later some Spanish ships and soldiers landed and drove out the English traders. The Englishmen did not go far away, but returned again when the Spaniards had gone. The troubles of the settlers, however, were not at an end. Forty years passed, during which time trade increased, but in 1703 some more Spaniards appeared, and with them some French, and the British were again turned out.

For many years after this the islands were almost deserted, except for visits by buccaneers, and other adventurers. The British had some doubts about returning to them, as the Government had not claimed possession. As no one appeared to own the islands, the Spaniards made up their minds to claim them once more, which they did in 1781. England was at this time at war with France and Spain, and a British fleet passing that way, under Captain Devereux, turned out the Spaniards. When peace was proclaimed and the treaty signed at Versailles in 1783, the islands were given to the British, just as Gambia was at the same time.

To-day the Bahamas are most famous for their sponge fishery, and a considerable amount of capital is sunk in this industry. The industry employs a whole fleet of schooners and feluccas and about 5000 men ;

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it requires skill and knowledge on the part of the crews, not only in the management of the vessels, but also in hooking the sponges off the beds and cleaning them for the market. The sponges are sold in parcels to the highest bidder at the market in Nassau, the crew receiving a percentage of the profits as their share. The value of the sponge exportation is about £111,000 annually. Pine-apples, oranges and other fruits are exported to the extent of some £10,000 value annually, and sisal hemp, which has become so famous of recent years, is exported to the value of £40,000. Hundreds of persons earn a modest living by fishing, turtling and shell-gathering, raising a few live stock, and growing corn and maize for home consumption.

BARBADOS.—The island of Barbados—the most easterly of our West Indian possessions—is about two-thirds the size of the Isle of Man. It has no very interesting history, as it has never belonged to any other nation. It is supposed to have been discovered by the Portuguese in 1518, but there is no proof except their story of finding an island in this district, as they took but a passing interest in it, and probably did not land.

The real history begins in 1605, when an expedition under Sir Oliver Leigh went to colonize it. Others followed in 1624, and the island was granted to some traders by James I. Shortly afterward the Caribbean Islands (Barbados is one of them) were made over to Lord Carlisle, but whether or not the agreement included Barbados was not made clear, and there were frequent troubles between the English settlers. The trouble soon ended. The English population grew rapidly, and many left to go to Jamaica,

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where there was more room. The island was taken over by the Crown in 1663, and in 1885 was constituted a distinct government. Bridgetown is the capital, and the principal exports are sugar, molasses, and cotton.

LEEWARD AND WINDWARD ISLANDS.—Our other possessions in this part of the world are the two groups of islands known as the Leewards and Windwards, of which little need be said. The former were acquired chiefly by settlement, 1623–59, and the latter mainly by cession, 1763–83. The Leeward Islands total an area of 700 square miles, and the chief among them are Antigua, St Kitts, Nevis, Dominica, and Montserrat. The last was held for a time by France, but England got it back again in 1784. The Windward Islands are three in number—Grenada, St Lucia, and St Vincent, forming a total area of 508 square miles. Fights between the French and English were waged on and around these three islands for a generation or more, but in 1783 they were given to England by a treaty with France.

The mention of the island of St Vincent calls to mind the battle of St Vincent. This battle was, however, not fought in the West Indies but off the south-west coast of Portugal, thirty miles from a cape bearing the name of St Vincent. France and Spain had, on 12th September, 1796, combined in a war against England, and the battle is not without West Indian interest, as it was fought and won on St Valentine's Day, 1797, by Sir John Jervis, who three years previously had commanded the British Navy in the West Indies and had taken possession of several of the islands. He was an old and experienced enemy of the Spaniards, and on the

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date named he was in command of a fleet of fifteen ships cruising off the coast of Portugal when he met Spain's grand fleet of twenty-seven warships, the mightiest sent out by Spain since the Armada. "They are thumpers!" said the signalman of the English *Barfleur* who first saw them; "they loom like Beachy Head in a fog." The look-out man on Jervis's ship first reported a fleet of eight Spanish ships. A little later he called out: "There are twenty, Sir John," and later still: "There are twenty-seven, Sir John." The great odds were commented upon by the officers who stood near the Admiral. "Enough of that," said he. "If there are fifty I am going through them." He did, too, and because of his great victory on that day he was created Earl St Vincent, with a pension of £3000 per annum. The victory came at an opportune moment. Because of many reverses about that time the confidence of Englishmen in their navy was small. The spirit of the nation revived, and Jervis and Nelson (for the hero of Trafalgar was with him) were hailed as great seamen. Neither they nor any other Englishmen had anything to fear from the Spaniards after St Vincent.

Jervis played an important part in the making of the Empire. He was with Wolfe at Quebec, where he led the fleet up the St Lawrence, was at the siege of Gibraltar, arranged the expedition that led to the battle of the Nile, and finally succeeded Pitt as First Lord of the Admiralty. It is fitting to speak of him in this chapter, if only for the fact that he, like Captain Cook, ran away to sea, and his very first voyage as a runaway of twelve years of age was to the West Indies, where in later years he was to make his name.

BRITISH HONDURAS.—Near to the West Indies, sand-

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wiched between Mexico and Guatemala on that narrow strip of land that joins North and South America, lies British Honduras, a Crown colony, 174 miles long and 68 miles broad. Columbus was the first of Europeans to discover it, and because of its richness the Spaniards did not hesitate to claim it. The chief products are the natural woods, particularly mahogany of the very finest quality, of which an average quantity of 12,000,000 feet is exported yearly. Although Spaniards settled there shortly after its discovery, the English very soon began to arrive, but not as traders and settlers. The first British arrivals, who had their eyes on the coast and on the wonderful forests inland, were buccaneers. Settlers and traders, however, followed them from England very soon after and commenced to trade. The people of the two nations, as usual, did not agree very well together, and in 1717 the Spaniards tried to drive the English out, but failed. Serious quarrels and little wars followed, and lasted for forty years. Afterward came a little peace, but in 1786 there was more trouble, which England settled by sending a force and taking possession of the country. Naturally, the Spaniards were annoyed, and tried to get it back again ten years later, but failed.

The district was first of all placed under the government of Jamaica, the nearest British possession, 700 miles away, but as the numbers of the British grew, they became dissatisfied with the officials sent by Jamaica, who, they said, treated them like children. British Honduras was made a Crown colony in 1870, but it was not until 1884 that the inhabitants had their way and got rid of the officials from Jamaica. All now goes well. Over 60,000 acres are devoted to bananas, pine-apples,

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oranges, coco-nuts, and other fruit. Belize, 5701 miles and 13 days' journey from London, is the capital and port.

BRITISH GUIANA is Britain's only possession in South America, and is near enough to the West Indies proper to be included in this chapter. It is bounded on the south by Brazil, on the west by Venezuela, and on the east—where it has a seaboard of 300 miles—by the Atlantic Ocean. The colony includes the three old settlements, or counties, of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice. The former is the most important, and to many the colony is better known as Demerara because of its chief product, Demerara sugar, which is grown in the three districts and not in Demerara alone. The colony has an area of 120,000 square miles, and may be said to be of the same size as the United Kingdom. One-third of the population consists of Hindu coolies, emigrants who have proved themselves to be the best workers in the sugar plantations. The bulk of the inhabitants consists of Portuguese from Madeira, negroes, and Chinese.

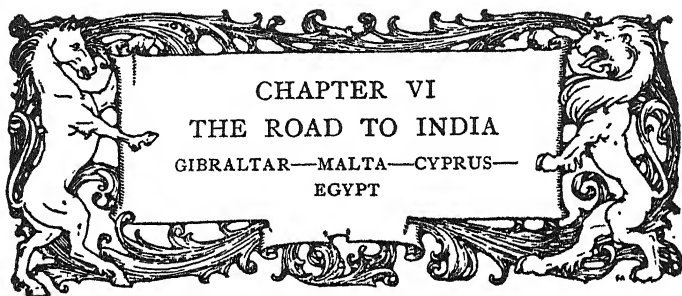
The main part of the colony was founded by the Dutch in 1580, and in 1652 some English emigrants established themselves beside them, but the English party was not successful and very soon came away, leaving the Dutch in possession. The Hollanders prospered, but suffered severely from privateers. In 1781 the colony fell into the hands of a British force under Admiral Rodney, the Dutch occupiers being allies of the French, with whom Britain was then at war. Rodney was safeguarding British interests in the West Indies, and in search of the French fleet; Guiana, belonging to an ally of our enemy, was therefore

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considered legitimate spoil. In the following year, however, the French recaptured the colony for their Dutch ally, but fourteen years later (in 1796) the British again captured it, only to give it again to the Dutch under the conditions made by the Peace of Amiens in 1802.

Again, and for the third time, it was, in 1803, captured by the British, and finally ceded to the Empire at the Peace of 1814. The colony was then known as Guiana, the name of British Guiana not being given to it until 1831, when some small addition was made.

For many years there was a dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela as to the boundary-line, a trouble that was settled by American arbitration in 1899. Later there was also a dispute about the Brazilian boundary-line, and this too was settled by arbitration (through the King of Italy), in 1904, the greater part of the disputed territory falling to Britain.

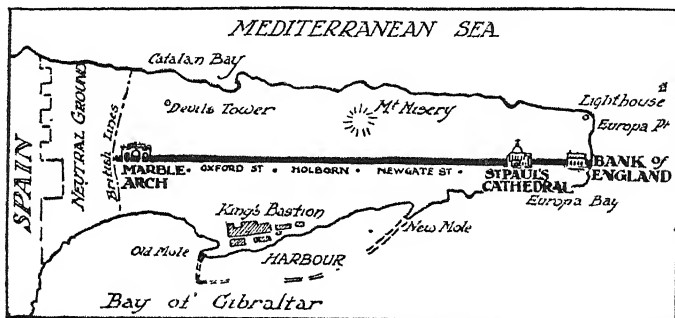


HAVING dealt with our largest possessions in the Western world, we will now put out to our great Indian possession, going by way of the beautiful Mediterranean, calling at some of the places flying the British flag on the way. Although some of these places are so small as to be scarcely distinguishable on a map of the Eastern Hemisphere, they are most important. Their smallness may be better estimated by the reader perhaps when he realizes that the combined area of Gibraltar, Malta, and Cyprus—our possessions in the Mediterranean—is only one half that of Wales. But small as they are they form some of the strongest links in the chain of Empire, are invaluable as coaling stations and harbours for our immense fleets of war, trading and passenger vessels, and as military centres.

GIBRALTAR, although the smallest of our possessions (1266 acres), is one of the most important, it being the 'door' of the great and busy Mediterranean, now the world's most important sea thoroughfare, a door about fifteen miles wide, the opposite portal being Africa. On each shore is a rock-mountain, the pair being known

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many generations ago as the Pillars of Hercules. Land then joined the two continents—Europe and Africa, and the Mediterranean was an inland sea. The 'door' is not likely to become larger, because of the mighty rocks forming the boundaries. At first the Strait was only very narrow, not unlike the present Suez Canal. Five hundred years before Christ it was



Gibraltar compared with London

measured and recorded at half a mile ; one hundred years later it had widened to four miles, and Pliny, a hundred years later, gives it as five miles. Later historians have given the distance as six, ten, and twelve miles, and so the widening by Nature has gone on until it has reached its present proportions. There is a legend that the first channel through to the Atlantic was cut by the Phœnicians.

Gibraltar is now a strongly fortified place with modern guns, and as the weapons can easily fire shell to hit the opposite shore, it is a simple matter for those who hold Gibraltar to control the Straits. The 'Rock,' as Gibraltar is commonly called, is not only a fort, but a coaling station, and a prosperous garrison town,

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with a population of about 21,000 civilians and 7000 soldiers. It is situated about 1100 miles from London on a rocky promontory at the south of Spain, and previous to the British occupation it belonged to that country.

The history of the Rock is a long and interesting one, but at the moment it is only its British connexion that concerns us, and from this point of view the first prominent date in its story is 24th July, 1704, since when we may be said to have owned it.

The way we came to possess it was this. Three years before (1701), the War of the Spanish Succession broke out, a war that lasted until 1713.

Wars proceeded very slowly in those days, because of the difficulties and slowness of travelling both by land and sea, the absence of the telegraph, and the comparative poorness of weapons. This war had been in progress three years when the British Government sent Sir George Rooke with a fleet of warships to seize Barcelona, an important city on the east coast of Spain. The Spaniards, however, were too strong for him and he was forced to retire for more ships and men. On his way back he had to pass through the Straits of Gibraltar. Apparently determined not to return home empty-handed, he made a sudden and unexpected attack upon the Spanish fortress then on the Rock, and as the place was very weakly held, obtained possession of it at very little cost.

Since that day Gibraltar has been in British hands, although the task of keeping it has not been an easy one. Many attempts have been made to retake it, that in the year 1779 being the last and most noteworthy. Britain had at this time lost some of her

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possessions in North America, and the Spaniards appear to have thought it a good opportunity to recover the Rock, especially as the French were helping them in their wars. The story of the famous siege which ensued is worth telling in some detail.

At the outset the enemy had sixty-six men of war at or near the Rock, and the British had only thirty-



Lord Heathfield

eight, under the command of Sir Charles Hardy, a gallant warrior who in his old age became governor of Greenwich Hospital. Hardy had distinguished himself in earlier actions with the French, and was considered the best man to prevent the landing of an invading army, which he did.

On land the governor was General Elliott (afterward Lord Heathfield), who at the commencement of the siege had with him about 7000 soldiers, and there were also three or four English warships in the harbour. They all made ready to resist a siege, but the gallant British on the Rock little thought that it would last for three years and seven months, as it did.

As the enemy successfully cut off all communication with the Rock, food very soon became scarce. Ducks fetched seven shillings each, and mutton three shillings a pound. Fish was scarce, as was also bread, and soldiers with fixed bayonets gave out the daily rations to the hungry people. It was in June 1779 that the siege began, and it was not until February 1783 that

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a ship bearing a British flag arrived with the news that help was coming.

By March 1781 things looked very serious. One day, however, a strong English fleet with ships containing food was sighted, and this annoyed the Spaniards so much that they commenced to bombard the town, and an immense amount of damage was done. They realized that their effort to starve the place into surrender was a failure. Guns and ammunition in those days were not so effective as they are to-day; the cannon-balls weighed about thirty pounds each, and they travelled so slowly that a person with a keen eye could follow their flight and get out of their way, but the damage these monster iron 'cricket balls' could do to buildings was very considerable.

Nearly two years later, the last grand attack was suddenly commenced by the Spaniards, and a terrible battle followed between the Spanish fleet and the garrison. So sudden and little expected was the attack that the English had not many cannons ready. There is a story of a soldier who had stored his valuables in one of the cannons, so little had been the need for it. He was off duty when the sudden attack commenced, and his comrades used the piece, not knowing that it contained the little treasures of one of their mates. After the fight had been fought and won by the English, the soldier went to get his valuables, when he found that the cannon had been fired and all his little treasures blown toward the Spaniards, who must have been surprised if the things reached them whole. History names only one article, a gold chain which he had bought to give his sweetheart on her birthday. He must have been grieved to find that this had gone.

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The soldiers of the garrison on this occasion made the cannon-balls hot before firing them, and christened them 'hot potatoes.' One authority tells us that one day 3000 of these red-hot cannon-balls were fired. The enemy lost about 3000 killed and wounded, the English less than 50, chiefly because they were firing from sheltered places on shore. British ships took little or no part in the battle. The news of the town's gallant defence reached the rescuing fleet under Lord Howe, and shortly afterward it arrived with fresh troops and provisions. Thus on 6th February, 1783, the great siege of Gibraltar came to an end, a terrible storm helping to destroy the last of the French and Spanish ships.

Some people have in the past actually proposed that we should give up Gibraltar to Spain because it costs us a large sum each year to maintain it. But this course is never likely to be followed, seeing that so many millions of pounds have been spent in making it the valuable coaling station and impregnable fortress that it is.

Down to about the year 1869, the Rock was not the important place that it is to-day. Ships passed through the Strait to ports in countries bordering on the Mediterranean, but none could go by that route to India, Australia, and the Far East. The ocean route to these countries was by way of the Cape of Good Hope. When, however, in 1869, the Suez Canal was completed, a shorter way to the East was offered, and the number of ships passing the Rock increased tenfold. Thus the possession became of greater value, and it is prized by the English people as one of the chief buttresses of their naval power.

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MALTA.—Nine hundred and eighty miles eastward of the rock fortress of Gibraltar, about half-way between Gibraltar and Egypt, lies the Island of Malta, which, with its neighbouring islands—Gozo and Comino—is another of our most important possessions, from a military point of view. One rarely hears the names of the smaller islands for the simple reason that the water separating the three is scarcely a mile across, and we are accustomed to call the group Malta, although only the larger island bears the name. The possession is a trifle smaller than the Isle of Wight—120 square miles, to be precise, while the population is about half that of Leeds—211,000, with a garrison numbering about 12,000.



Malta, Gozo, and Comino compared with the
Isle of Wight

The island has a wonderful history, but our interest in it dates only from 1798. In that year (12th June) Napoleon seized it when on his way to Egypt, and a reminder of his occupation still remains. The women all wear black dresses and hoods, and the story tells us that, when the island was captured by the French troops under Napoleon, the women and children were so badly treated that they vowed they would in future dress in black and wear a distinctive hood (called a *jaldetta*), which is known as the 'hood of shame.' Not

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only were the people treated badly, but churches and other places were laid in ruins. Then an insurrection broke out, and affairs were in a terrible state. The British Government then sent Nelson with a fleet of ships to blockade the place, and the French were starved into surrender, capitulating on 4th September, 1800. The island, however, still belonged to the Maltese. Nelson's enemies, the French, had simply been driven out. His quarrel was with them, not with the people of Malta.

The British occupation of Malta was not directly the result of a conquest, but rather the outcome of a voluntary act on the part of the Maltese, who naturally expected that Napoleon would attack them again when he got the chance. The people, therefore, remembering what the British had done, with the consent of the European Powers offered their country to George III.

Thus Malta became a Crown colony, and being favourably situated—200 miles from the coast of Africa (Cape Bon) and 60 miles from Sicily—is an ideal base for our great Mediterranean fleet. It is by nature a fortress, a fortress “built by Nature for herself against infection and the hand of war.” Valetta, the chief town, has a population of about 23,000. The island is very fruitful and well cultivated by the energetic Maltese, who trade largely in corn, potatoes, figs, oranges, and cotton.

CYPRUS.—In the extreme east of the Mediterranean, about 1000 miles from Malta, lies the island of Cyprus, the population of which is about 275,000, four-fifths being Greeks and one-fifth Turks.

The connexion between Britain and Cyprus was a

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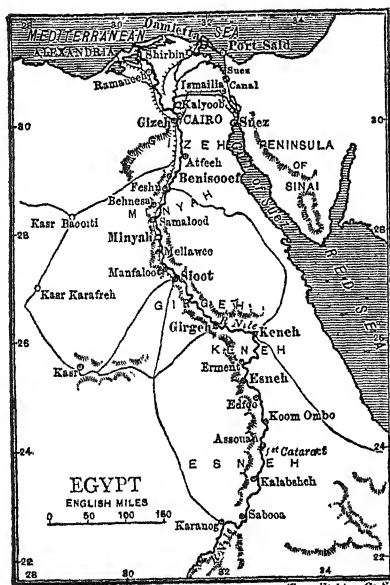
rather peculiar one until 5th November, 1914, and its name was to be found in some lists of the British possessions and not in others. Its history, so far as it concerns the British, may be briefly stated. The first time England had to do with Cyprus was in the year 1191, when Richard Cœur de Lion captured it and assumed the title of King. His possession of the island lasted only two years, it being remotely situated and of little real importance. He therefore sold it, first to the Templars and then to Lusignan, who was at the time King of Jerusalem, the period being that of the Third Crusade. Later the Genoese held it, then the Venetians, and lastly the Turks.

In 1878 there was an Anglo-Turkish Convention at Constantinople and we were asked to take possession of the island until Russia should restore to Turkey the fortress of Kars, and other parts of Armenia acquired as the result of the Russo-Turkish War in 1877-78. In return we were to assist the Sultan of Turkey in defending his Asiatic possessions against Russia. The Great European War of 1914 put an end to all compacts with Turkey, and our annexation of Cyprus as a Crown colony on 5th November, 1914, merely gave formal sanction to what had long been an accomplished fact. The island is somewhat off the main route to the East, and its importance to the Empire not being great it is expected that it will some day be handed over to Greece.

Cyprus is the Chittim of Scripture, and its forests and copper were at one time famous. The island, in fact, derives its name from the metal, which, like its forests, has long ceased to be worked. The olive and the vine are now cultivated, but locusts do great damage to crops.

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EGYPT.—Egypt, a very romantic country with a wonderful history, is the next place on the road to India that demands our attention. Its connexion with Great Britain came about in a rather curious way. Both Britain and France had their eyes upon Egypt,



and affairs that interest us most may be said to date from the year 1798, when the land was seized by Napoleon, Lord Nelson attacking him at Aboukir on 1st August of that year, the battle being better known as the battle of the Nile.

For many years the influence of first one and then the other nation was paramount in Egypt. England did much toward suppressing the troublesome natives, while

France turned her attention to engineering and built the Suez Canal, and so affairs continued until 1875, when an important crisis arose owing to the very extravagant ways of Ismail, the then governor of Egypt.

The country at that time was in a bankrupt state. Turkey, to whom Egypt belonged, was unwilling, if not unable, to help, and England and France, as great creditor countries who were deeply interested, agreed to help the people out of their difficulties; thus they

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got their first good footing in Egypt. The task undertaken was not an easy one. Some of the discontented Egyptians did not like the arrangement, and one of them—Arabi Pasha by name—got an army together for the purpose of driving out the Europeans. Thereupon both England and France sent warships to Egypt's chief port, Alexandria, the date of the arrival being 20th May, 1882. This date marked the beginning of the sole British control, because, just as the fighting was about to start, the French fleet sailed away, refusing to take any part in the hostilities. The British fleet was commanded by Admiral Seymour, who bombarded Alexandria. Subsequently, when other Powers had declined to participate, Great Britain landed an army of about 30,000 men, who fought their way through the country by way of Tel-el-Kebir, where the rebellion was crushed. Arabi was captured and Egypt quietened. In 1904 the French came to an understanding with Britain, and an agreement was made whereby they resigned their interest in the country.

The position of Egypt in the British Empire was at one time something of a puzzle. Indeed, until December 1914 many British people did not really know what was the position we held in Egypt, and the name of the country appeared in some current lists of our possessions and not in others. It was known that England had bought (for £4,000,000) the bulk of the Suez Canal shares from the spendthrift Khedive of 1875, that British soldiers were in Egypt and had been since Arabi's downfall, that England took an exceptional interest in the country, and yet for some reason or other the Turk seemed to have the ruling power.

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When, however, Turkey joined Germany and Austria in the Great European War, we were able to make our connexion with Egypt more clear and certain, and the British gave notice (in December 1914) that Egypt was placed under the protection of his Majesty, and would henceforth constitute a British Protectorate.

The suzerainty of Turkey over Egypt was thus brought to an end, and the British Government announced that it would adopt all the measures necessary for the defence of Egypt. The Khedive (who ruled as representative of the Sultan of Turkey, like the Viceroy of India in our Eastern possession) had left the country for Constantinople in order to join Britain's enemies, and a Sultan friendly to England was placed on the throne, for a protectorate implies a native ruler and a native government, with support from the protecting power.

With Egypt as a British protectorate the Turk lost his last foothold in Africa. The country had remained nominally a self-governing province of the Turkish empire. The flag was Turkish, and the words of command in the Egyptian army were Turkish. An annual tribute was paid to the Sultan. The British position before December 1914 was that of a power in military occupation, its agent nominally a mere consul-general, like other consuls, but with a right to advise.

Great Britain declared war on Turkey on 5th November, 1914, and at once all eyes became fixed upon Egypt, particularly upon the Suez Canal, as it was understood to be one of Germany's objectives. The invasion of Egypt, with the control of the Suez Canal, had for many years been one of Germany's dreams, and the world was told—through German newspapers—

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that 100,000 picked German troops and half a million Turks were ready to drive the English out of Egypt.

The first week of February 1915 witnessed a movement against the Suez Canal by the Turks, led by many German officers, Kantara and Toussoum being the points of attack. At the latter place they brought carefully made pontoons for our artillery to smash up, and 12,000 men for our Regulars and Territorials to deal with. Also they dug trenches in the sand, about 800 yards from the Canal. The attack was delivered at night, but it was firmly responded to at dawn (5th February), not only by British, Indian, and Egyptian troops—the latter remaining most loyal throughout—but also by H.M.S. *Hardinge*, an armed troopship. For several hours the fighting was severe, but the Turks were soon dispersed, many being taken prisoner. No greater success attended their efforts at Kantara. The attacking force, numbering about 20,000, had come from Palestine, where—at Beersheba—the main Turkish army, under Djemel Pasha, had its headquarters.

A few weeks later (on 25th April) Gallipoli was occupied by the Allies, a move that engaged the attention of the Turks, and subsequently there were but a very few minor attacks in the Canal district. Eventually the Egyptian Expeditionary Force was able to cross the Canal and commence its victorious march to El Arish, and later into Palestine.

Egypt has been most prosperous during Britain's occupation of the country. The census returns issued in May 1917 showed that the population was then 12,566,000, an increase of 12 per cent since the census of 1907. Cairo now shares with Glasgow the honour of being the fifth city in the Empire, with a population

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of 785,000. And so successful has been British rule that the value of land has increased in a remarkable manner. Building land in Cairo, for instance, now realizes from £20 to £50 per square metre, whereas before the British occupation the price was only four shillings. Cotton-growing and agriculture have also increased enormously, thanks largely to the Assuan Dam, which assists the work of irrigation necessary to make the land productive.



The Earl of Cromer

Lord Cromer may justly be described as one of the chief builders of modern Egypt, and his career in this and in other parts of the Empire is one of which all Britons may feel proud. His association with

Egypt began in 1877, when he was appointed English Commissioner on the Egyptian debt, the country then being in a critical financial state. Lord Cromer—or Major Evelyn Baring, as he then was—worked strenuously at the problem for two years, and so successful was he in instituting reforms and bringing the finances of the country into a more satisfactory condition that the British Government bade him transfer his attention to the financial state of India, he having been for four years (1872–76) Secretary to the Viceroy of India.

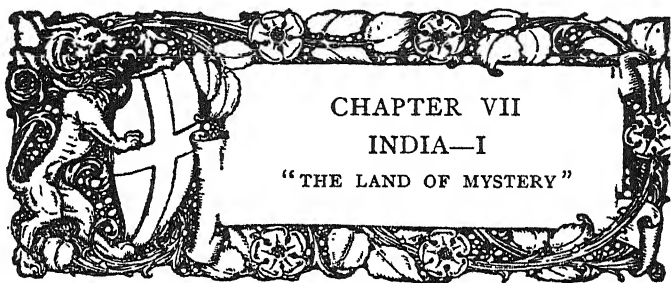
In 1883 Lord Cromer returned to Cairo as British Agent and Consul-General, a position he held until his resignation in 1907. Under his wise rule Egypt itself

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gradually became transformed into a well-governed, well-administered, and prosperous country, and it was during his governorship that the power of the Mahdi was destroyed and the Sudan restored to civilization and placed under the protection of Britain. As one famous writer has said :

“ The contrast between Egypt to-day and Egypt as Lord Cromer found it, the enhanced reputation of Britain in matters Egyptian, are a measure of the signal services he has rendered.”

Lord Cromer was raised to the peerage as Baron Cromer in 1892, made a Viscount seven years later, and received an earldom in 1901. He died on 29th January, 1917.



FACING the great waters of the Indian Ocean a vast peninsula juts out from the continent of Asia. It is India, "the Land of Mystery." India has ever been a lodestone for conquering races, many having desired to possess it, and, as a result, it has been ruled for hundreds of years by kings who were not born in the country. Through the passes of Afghanistan, such as the famous Khyber Pass, by the great defiles in that vast range of mountains, the Himalayas, which form a natural boundary to the north, hordes of invaders have poured into the plains of India below. Age after age, century after century, the peace-loving Hindu has been subject to the rule of conquerors who sought the wealth of India.

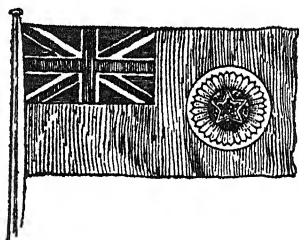
India teemed with gold and silver, and great temples studded with precious stones. And century after century this vast wealth tempted and awaited the invader. Eight hundred and forty-two years before Christ the Assyrians first invaded India ; three hundred years later, in 510 B.C., the great Persian King Darius descended into the fertile plains from the Afghanistan plateau, to be followed by Alexander the Great in

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327 B.C. And although Alexander was the last European monarch to set foot in India for over eighteen hundred years, a succession of foreign nations, Scythians, Tartars, Mongols, Huns, Afghans, and others, founded great empires in India in that interval.

In this period of eighteen hundred years a legend of India had grown up in Europe. Fabulous tales of wonderful wealth and splendour came to the ears of its credulous peoples, leading men to adventure forth to win the land of treasures for Europe.

But the way to this wonderful India was unknown to the peoples of the West in those early days. The country was



Flag of India

only a memory, and had to be rediscovered. It was to discover and to bring to Spain samples of its wonderful wealth that Columbus set forth on that journey which resulted in his finding America. And when the islands in the Gulf of Mexico were sighted, sure in the belief that the prize of India lay before him, he shouted his belief aloud, and to this day these islands are known to the civilized world as the West Indies.

Columbus, however, was not destined to discover India. He had gone the wrong way, thinking that he might find a short cut by sailing a way no other man had been. The lot of discovering India fell to Vasco da Gama, a Portuguese explorer. Setting sail from Europe in 1497, he journeyed in a southerly direction, rounded the Cape of Good Hope, and eventually reached India. He was thus the pioneer of what for more than three centuries was to be the chief route of the trade

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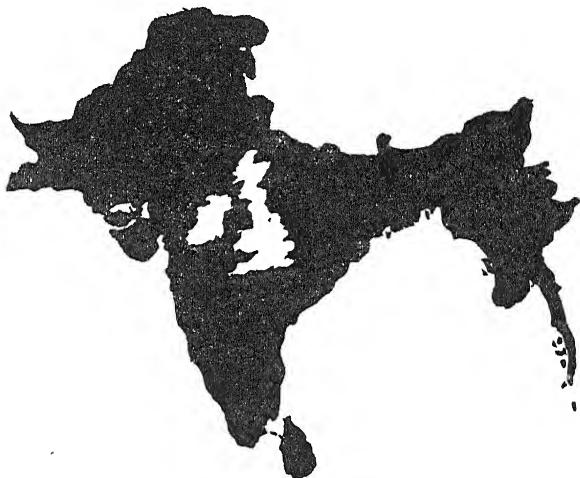
of Europe with the East. And since the day of da Gama's landing, India had been struggled for as a prize worth winning by Portuguese, Spaniards, Dutch, French, and English in turn.

Not until the year 1613 did the English settle in India. In that year some traders occupied a settlement at Bombay, and nineteen years later other merchantmen opened a trading port at Calcutta, and one at Madras. In these early days the largest and most profitable trade was done in exporting cinnamon, cloves, and pepper, and as ninety shillings out of every five pounds made by the traders was profit, things looked very rosy for them.

In order to make clear the later operations in India it may here be stated parenthetically that the early struggles of the English for trade and possession were with France, and when France was defeated there were, as we shall see, troubles with the Indian rulers who had dreams of an immense empire. One important fact about these early troubles, however, must be remembered. They were fights and quarrels on the part of traders, and had nothing whatever to do with the English Government. The wars were quite unofficial and the soldiers who fought—both English and French—were men in the employment of the traders and not of the home governments. As a matter of fact a great deal of the fighting between the English and French in India took place when England and France were at peace, at any rate in Europe. And for a hundred years after the battle of Plassey (1757) India was ruled by what is known as the East India Company. The British Government was slow to recognize the Company, and not until the year 1858, after the Indian Mutiny,

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did England take over the formal and full government of the country, and it was not until 1877 that Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India. If you will look at the wording which surrounds the head of the King on an English penny, you will find the abbreviated words IND. IMP., which mean Emperor of India.



India, Ceylon, and Burma compared with the United Kingdom

The East India Company, which played such an important part in the history of the British in India, was a body of merchants founded in the days of Queen Elizabeth for the purpose of trading with commercial centres in the East. It started business in 1600 with £70,000, and with it were connected many famous men, who caused it to prosper. Had it not been for the power and enterprise of these English merchants, we might never have owned India.

Tradition tells us that it was a rise in the price

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of pepper in the time of Elizabeth that led to the formation of the Company and therefore to the establishment of our Empire in India. The Dutch traders then held the monopoly of trade with India. One day they raised the price of pepper from three shillings to six shillings a pound. Thereupon a meeting of merchants in London was called to protest against "the most unchristian price of the useful pepper," and this resulted in the Company being formed.

The story of how the East India Company obtained its extraordinary footing in India is one of the romances of history. In the summer of 1651 the Shah Jehan was on the throne of the Moguls at Delhi, a man of the most regal ideas. It is recorded that he spent one and a half millions of pounds on a birthday party, while the throne—the Peacock throne—was so covered with diamonds and other precious stones that it was valued at six and a half millions. Delhi, with its numerous great halls of marble and splendid mosques, was his creation. Shining among these, and still regarded as one of the most beautiful buildings in the world, is the shrine built to house the body of his loved wife, the noble building known as the Taj Mahal.

Shah Jehan had a daughter, the Padishah Begum, who was twenty-two years old at the time. She was the Shah's idol, and famous throughout India for her accomplishments and personal beauty. One evening in July word was brought to the Shah that his daughter was very ill. The doctors at the Court were helpless and could do little, so the Shah turned in despair to the English traders who were at Surat. It is a long way from Delhi to Surat—a little more than 600 miles—but night and day the swiftest horses carried messengers.

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to the coast (Surat). A vessel—the *Hopewell*—had just arrived from England, and on board was a young doctor named Gabriel Boughten. In a very short time he was on his way to Delhi, and ready to face death should he fail to cure the ruler's daughter. Happily he was successful, and when the princess had quite recovered the Shah commanded the doctor to appear before him, when he pledged his word that whatever he wished would be granted. To all present it seemed as if there could be only one request—that the daughter should be given to him as a wife. There was a great silence when the Englishman began to speak, and with utter amazement the onlookers heard him ask simply that the East India Company, in whose service he was, should have liberty to establish factories anywhere in the Shah's dominions, and that no duties or fees should be charged by the ruler's officials.

The Shah agreed willingly, and from that time the Company began to prosper. From being a body of small traders on the coast of India, it became the richest body of traders in the world, and it cannot be denied that the foundation of English rule in India is due very largely, if not entirely, to the unselfish patriotism of the young English doctor. A grasping man would have sought only his own ends when given such an opportunity, but Gabriel Boughten was far-seeing, and his apparently modest request was the means of securing for his country the greatest prize that the world has known.

The Company at first included Java, Sumatra, and a few other places in its trading, but after a time it was found that India was far more important than any other place, and it was decided to confine operations

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to India. Huge factories and stores were then, by permission of the native chiefs, set up in Madras and other large towns. In course of time trade increased, and the English became very friendly indeed with the native rulers in that part of India—around Madras—where the principal factories were situated. On the east side of India, at a place called Pondicherry, eighty miles from Madras, the French had likewise begun to trade, build factories, and establish themselves. These French traders were very powerful rivals of the British; not unnaturally, serious trouble arose between the two, and finally the jealousy shown by each brought about a war. In the end the French were beaten and driven from India, except at the town of Pondicherry, and four others—Chandernagore, Karikal, Yanaon, and Mahé, the total area being 200 square miles. To this day the French hold these places, the remnant of their former great Indian colony.

The French settlement was governed by Dupleix, a clever man who had one great trouble—the success of the English trading company—and it was his ambition that led to the great battle of Pondicherry in 1748, a battle in which the English were defeated.

We often hear of Joan of Arc and her doings, and it should be remembered that the British army has had its women soldiers too. One of these, Dame Hannah Shell, a truculent-looking person, whose portrait is preserved in the Great Hall of Chelsea Hospital, served in the siege of Pondicherry and was badly wounded, her sex being discovered when she was removed to hospital. She became a pensioner and wore, on occasion, the three-cornered hat and uniform coat of Chelsea, and



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was, at her own request, buried in the graveyard of the hospital.

Among the British who were fighting at Pondicherry was a young clerk who was destined to win India for Britain—Robert (afterward Lord) Clive. Clive was born on 29th September, 1725, at Styche, near Market



Lord Clive

Drayton, in the county of Shropshire, and he was considered by his parents to be a mischievous, good-for-nothing lad; not nearly so good and obedient as his twelve brothers and sisters, but even as a lad he gave indications of what the man was to be. Many tales of Clive's deeds as a boy have been remembered; his uncle saw in him a born fighter, as he was addicted to fighting "out of

all measure." It was also seen in him that he was "combative, courageous, daring to the last degree, and a terror to all quiet-minded people."

Once he and some of his playfellows were building a dam in a ditch, so as to make water flow into some place where it was not intended to go. The dam the lads made broke, and the water began to resume its proper course. Without any hesitation young Clive threw himself full length into the water, and stopped the breach in the dam with his body until his companions could build it up again more strongly.

Again, this time in India, Clive said a brother officer had cheated at cards, and the result was a duel. Clive

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fired and missed his opponent. The latter then went up to Clive and threatened to shoot at close quarters unless he apologized. Cried Clive: "Fire away then. I said you cheated, I say so still," and the astonished officer threw away his pistol, saying Clive must be mad. And, further to show the stuff Clive was made of, the story may be told of Colonel Forde, who wrote to Clive saying that if he had an Order in Council (an order from Clive's superiors) allowing him to attack the enemy there was a fair chance of winning. Clive at once replied in a pencilled note:

DEAR FORDE,—Fight them now. I will send you the Order in Council to-morrow.

We must not, however, get along too fast with the story of Clive. You will want to know how the young urchin got to India. His parents could do little with him, and at the age of eighteen, being considered an incorrigible scapegrace, he was shipped off to India to a position as clerk in the offices of the East India Company. Clive reached the Madras office toward the end of 1744, at a period when the French traders threatened to drive the British out of India. Very soon after the battle of Pondicherry (1748) Madras surrendered to a French general called Bourdonnais, and Clive was taken a prisoner of war, so strong were the French at the time. Clive, however, managed to escape. He disguised himself as a native, and got away to a little town called Fort St George, a few miles south of Madras, where the British flag still waved over men determined to beat the French and uphold the honour of their native country. This was the turning-point in Clive's eventful life, and those brave Englishmen who welcomed

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the lad little dreamed of the glorious destiny that awaited him.

In the winter of 1746 the French attacked Fort St George, and we can well imagine young Clive's enthusiasm when they were driven off. A month or two later he threw up his position as a clerk, and joined the Company's army as an officer. Clive was a soldier at heart from the very first, and although only a clerk at Pondicherry when it was attacked, he here first showed some of those soldierly qualities which in after years won for him the admiration and confidence of his troops.

One incident at Pondicherry may be recorded to show Clive's spirit. During the hottest of the fighting he learned that his companions were getting short of powder. Laying down his rifle, he braved the shot and shell and ran to the magazine for more. An officer who saw him leave the fighting line later spread the report that he was a coward, whereupon an inquiry was held, and the officer was obliged to apologize before the whole regiment.

After the battles of Pondicherry and Madras, the French may be said to have become masters of Southern India, except Fort St George. French rule and influence extended from the extreme south (Cape Comorin) almost to Bombay and Calcutta. In fact, Dupleix had been made governor of all India from Cape Comorin to the Kistna by the King of France.

The French at one time were well on the way toward conquering the whole of India, and in many cases they were able to put native supporters on the thrones of several small Hindu kingdoms, and in doing so they often caused trouble among the natives. On one

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occasion Dupleix opposed us in a contest of two native princes, Muzaffar Jung and Nazar Jung, for the title and power of Nabob in that part of India known as the Carnatic. The rival princes were brothers, the French taking the side of one and the British that of the other. The French managed to shut up in Trichinopoly, a town they besieged, the prince whom they did not desire to win. Clive urged on his company the necessity of supporting this prince, and pointed out that his capture meant that the French would finally win, and that the British would have to leave India. He proposed that an attempt should be made to relieve Trichinopoly by an attack on Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic. This advice was accepted, and although Clive was only twenty-three years of age he was given command of the British force.

The battle of Arcot is very interesting from the numbers engaged on each side. Clive's army consisted of 300 friendly Hindus, 200 English, and 8 guns. The 200 British soldiers at Arcot belonged to an East India Company's regiment known as the 102nd Madras, incorporated in the British Army in 1801, and known as the Dublin Fusiliers, and this regiment bears on its colours to-day the word 'Arcot,' in memory of the famous siege.

Clive's army made a very bad start from Madras. Before they had marched many miles a terrific storm burst, which continued for five days, but Clive's watchword throughout was "Keep your spirits up and your powder dry." This they did, with the result that the Arcot garrison fled, and these 500 soldiers, with Clive as their head, marched into the place through 100,000 spectators without firing a shot. Clive seized the fort

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and began to strengthen it, having an idea that the enemy would reappear. He was right. They came, 10,000 of them, surrounded the fort, and compelled the little army, now only 320 strong, to remain therein for fifty days, hoping to starve it into surrender.

Fearing that he would receive help before Arcot could be taken, the enemy offered large bribes to Clive, and threatened that if the proposals were not accepted the town would be stormed. Clive replied in a way that might be expected of such a man. He told the enemy general that he and his father—the false king—were usurpers, that their army was nothing more than a rabble, that if they wanted to know what real soldiers were like they could not do better than send their rabble into a place defended by English soldiers. Perhaps the taunts told, for a last attempt was made to storm Arcot. It failed after three tremendous onsets, and the enemy retired in the darkness of the night, baffled, discouraged, and dismayed. It was one of the most remarkable defences in history, as the enemy numbered over 10,000.

After the successful defence of Arcot, victory after victory over the French and their Hindu friends was gained by the British under Clive. Finally, Trichinopoly was relieved, the usurper executed, and the proper king placed on the throne. Before the battle of Arcot the Indian rulers did not believe that the British soldiers were as good as the French, but after Arcot they knew better, and were more willing to place faith in the English.

In the year 1753 Clive returned to England, worn out by anxiety and fatigue. He had gone out only ten years before as a scapegrace, without friends or

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influence. He returned to be acclaimed by Pitt as "the youth of 27 years who had accomplished the deeds of a heaven-born general," and to be met by his father with the remark: "The booby has sense after all." He was the Kitchener of those days, and the King (George II) when asked by an officer if young Lord Dunmore might go as a volunteer to the army of the King of Prussia, in order to study war, said: "*Pshaw!* what can he learn there? If he wants to learn the art of successful warfare, let him go to Clive."

A couple of years later the East India Company became afraid that a new war with the French was possible, as the traders of French origin had not given up hope of regaining India. The Company therefore invited Clive to return and take a position as Governor of Madras, which he did in November 1755. Within a few months of his arrival, the king, or nabob, of Bengal, urged on by the French, marched on Calcutta with his troops, and the English residents, taken unaware, were not able to resist. The nabob—Surajah Dowlah by name—was a very cruel man, and the dreadful affair of 20th June, 1756, known as the Black Hole of Calcutta, for which he was responsible, will never be forgotten. He had all the English in Calcutta—146 men, women, and children—packed into a room about 20 feet square, with only a small hole for ventilation. There they remained during the night—one of the hottest nights of the most sultry season of the year—and when the door was opened in the morning only 23 of the 146 were alive, the remainder having died, either in madness or through suffocation.

Clive's first duty as Governor was to avenge this outrage, and to regain Bengal for the East India Company.

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He set sail with his troops from Madras, arrived at Calcutta and seized the town in January 1757.

A curious incident which happened at the recapture of Calcutta deserves to be recorded. A British force was landed overnight to attack the first fort, Budge-Budge, at daybreak. During the night a tipsy seaman named Strachan strolled under the walls and clambered on top of a breach made by the ships' cannonade. Seeing only a few defenders, he shouted out: "The place is mine!" and fired his pistol. The noise attracted Strachan's messmates and a few soldiers, and the fort was promptly captured. Admiral Watson, a strict disciplinarian, sent for Strachan, who, in answer to a question, said: "To be sure, sir, it was I who took the fort, but I hope there was no harm in it." The Admiral, though highly amused, had to reprimand the sailor for drunkenness and absence from the ship. As Strachan went forward he was heard to remark: "Well, if I get punished for taking this 'ere fort I'll be blowed if I ever take another!"

Clive determined to have done with the French and their treacherous native friends once and for all. He was victorious in several battles, and finally, at the battle of Plassey, on 23rd June, 1757, he utterly routed the cruel nabob, first writing him a polite note telling him that he was not satisfied with his treatment of the British, and that he (Clive) and his soldiers would do themselves the honour of calling on him for an answer.

Clive's total army at the battle of Plassey consisted of 3000 men, of whom only 1000 were British. The nabob's army numbered 40,000 foot and 15,000 horse soldiers, with 50 big guns. For once Clive had a doubt about the result of "calling for his answer."

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He assembled a council of war, and the council decided by a majority not to engage in battle, as the British army was so small. After the council was over Clive retired alone to the shade of some trees, and for a whole hour remained in silent thought. On the issue of the battle lay the future of the English in India. The odds were tremendous, 55,000 against 3000. But at the end of that hour of silent thought Clive determined to reject the decision of the Council and to attack the nabob on the morrow. He returned to his soldiers with the word "Forward" on his lips, and ordered them to prepare for a fight at sunrise. The battle of Plassey only lasted one hour, and Clive's faith in himself and his army was justified. The nabob's army melted away, and its camp, guns, baggage, and cattle were left in Clive's hands, at a loss to the British of only 22 killed and 50 wounded.

The battle of Plassey ended for all time the efforts of the French to establish a colony in India, and the British became the real governors of India. But the whole of India was not under British rule. India, it must be remembered, is a very large country. Its total area is a little over one and a half millions of square miles, or about fifteen times the size of the United Kingdom. It is divided into many provinces and states, four of which are larger than the United Kingdom, twelve larger than England, and fifteen larger than Ireland.

After Plassey, Clive installed a renegade from Surajah Dowlah's employ named Mir Jaffier as nabob in place of Surajah, and left a young Englishman—Warren Hastings—to look after him. Thus another future great ruler of India came on the scene as a clerk in the

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East India Company. Hastings, however, was not a soldier, like Clive. He was, and remained, a civilian, but he rose to be the first Governor-General of India in 1793. One of England's greatest Empire-builders, he built up a civil code on the foundations laid by soldiers like Clive, Lawrence, and others. And it is



Warren Hastings

sad to think that Hastings, after his great services and wonderful career in India, was ordered home by the English Government and tried like a common criminal for offences he is said to have committed. The trial began in Westminster Hall on 13th February, 1788, and dragged on for seven years. In the end Hastings was acquitted (23rd April, 1795), the trial costing him about £70,000.

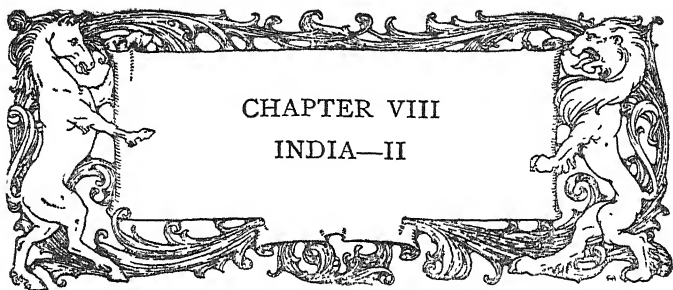
There appears to be no doubt that Hastings was guilty of a few offences, and Professor J. R. Seeley, writing of this particular period in his *Expansion of England*, says :

“ It is undeniable that we were hurried on by mere rapacity. The violent proceedings of Warren Hastings at Benares, in Oude, and Rohilcund, were of the nature of money speculations. If the later history of British India had been of the same kind, our Empire might fairly be said to be similar to the Empire of the Spanish in Hispaniola and Peru, and to have sprung entirely out of the reckless pursuit of gain.”

The surpassing greatness of the work Hastings

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accomplished in placing the British Empire in India on a sound foundation, some say, might have been suffered to outweigh his offences. Many, however, are of opinion that it was a good thing for the Empire in general and India in particular that the first governors of our Eastern possession were subjected to a very close scrutiny of their actions. The investigations of the accusations concerning Hastings probably helped to create the very high standard maintained by the British Civil Service in India and elsewhere.



CHAPTER VIII
INDIA—II

YOU will have seen that by the battle of Plassey in 1757 the English became rulers of a great portion of what we now call India. They had to fight many small battles in order to maintain themselves, but their rule was never in doubt. There still remained, however, very considerable areas not under British rule, and a number of small wars resulted from the effort to subdue these territories and to retain what was already held.

The first of these you should know about is a rebellion against British rule in the south of India, principally because of a plain British soldier—Colonel Joseph Smith—who is never mentioned in the history books used at school. It was the famous Hyder Ali who headed this rebellion. Hyder Ali had been a common soldier, who by the display of great military genius had finally won the kingdom of Mysore as his own, and his son was the equally notorious Tippoo Sahib. Colonel Smith, with the help of some fine British regiments—what is now the Dublin Fusiliers was one of them—proved more than a match for his opponents, however, and it is related that Hyder Ali was so afraid of him that he always trembled when he heard the name

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of Colonel Smith mentioned. Smith did a lot of useful work, but the rebellion was finally crushed by Lord Cornwallis in 1799, when he took Tippoo Sahib's capital of Seringapatam in forty-eight hours, and compelled Tippoo to sign a treaty depriving himself of half his kingdom and revenue. Tippoo was known as 'the Tiger of Mysore,' he was so quarrelsome. He never gave up the hope of driving the English away, but all to no purpose, and he was killed in one of the battles.

A large part of India is known as the Deccan, and north of it is another large stretch of country called the Punjab. The Deccan is inhabited chiefly by a race called the Mahrattas, while the Punjab is peopled by the better-known Sikhs. Neither the Deccan nor the Punjab was, at the time of which I am writing, under British rule. For a few years, from about 1790 to 1800, India—so far as it was held by the British—was fairly quiet. But about 1803 a great war, the Mahratta War, commenced, owing to the ambitions of two of the Mahratta kings of Scindia and Holkar. Now the Mahratta kingdoms (there were five) covered far more land than was held by the British. From Haidarabad to Delhi was their northern boundary, and there were great centres at Poona, Gwalior, Nagpur, Indore, and Baroda. The object of the Mahrattas was to extend their lands south toward Madras and east toward Calcutta. To check this and defeat them was the object of the British, and the task was entrusted to two men—General Lake in the north and General Wellesley in the south. By victories at Aligarh, Delhi, Agra, and elsewhere, General Lake defeated the Mahrattas in the north. By victories in Assaye (4520 against 50,000),

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Argaum, and Gwalior, General Wellesley crushed the Mahratta power in the south. So famous is the Duke of Wellington as the victor of the battle of Waterloo and the conqueror of Napoleon that it is hard to remember that General Wellesley, who thus fought against the Mahrattas in India, and the Duke of Wellington are one and the same person.

As a result of this crushing of the Mahratta power, vast portions of India came under British rule. From Calcutta in the east, westward to Delhi and Agra and southward to Madras and Cape Comorin, the entire peninsula became British.

The next great extension of British rule occurred in what we now call Farther India. If you look at a map of Asia, you will see a great stretch of country on the east between India and China, stretching down into what are known as the Malay States. This is Burma, the home of the Burmese. Under an aggressive king, the Burmese had begun to attack British territory to the north-east of Calcutta. In 1824 an army of 11,000 men was sent to Rangoon to punish them. The campaign lasted two years, and in 1826 Assam, Aracan and Tenasserin passed to the British. A second Burmese War followed in 1852, due to English merchants at Rangoon having been ill-treated, and as a result Pegu came under British rule. A third Burmese War in 1885 brought Upper Burma to the Empire.

South of the Punjab is Scinde, or Sindh, a province of Bombay. The story of the annexation of this part of India is connected with the life of a great Englishman who fought many wonderful battles in it—Sir Charles Napier. Before he went there with his army, in 1843, he was told that on no account must he annex

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it .His task was to preserve order ; he was not to make the native rulers enemies. It so happens that the name ' Scinde ' and the English word ' sinned ' have a similar sound, and as Napier had a sense of humour he made use of the coincidence. For some reason Napier did disobediently conquer and annex Scinde, and the telegram he sent home is one of the most famous in history. It contained only one word, a Latin one, "*Peccavi*," which means "I have sinned (Scinde)." The message thus carried a double meaning. Napier's most wonderful battle was at Miani (on the Indus, six miles north of Haidarabad) where, on 17th February, 1843, he met and defeated about 30,000 of the enemy, holding a strong position with only 2800 men under his command. Not long afterward, at Dubba, he routed 20,000 of the enemy with a force of only 5000 British.

We now come to the last great annexation in India—that part known as the Punjab—in the year 1849. You have been told that the district is inhabited by Sikhs, who are among the bravest of the world's fighters. In 1845 the British were called upon to meet an attack from some 60,000 of these gallant warriors, and on other occasions we had found them foemen worthy of our steel.

It was found necessary to bring these hardened warriors under the Union Jack because of the danger that, if we did not rule their country, Russia would probably do so, as she was extending her territory southward nearer and nearer to the mountainous regions of India. By taking over the Punjab English rule in India was extended to the great Himalayan mountain chain, the wonderful natural barrier which

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even now serves as a shield to India. Four big battles—Moodkee, Ferozeshah, Aliwal, and Sobraon—were fought in sixty days. A little later, three more were fought—Ramnuggur, Chillianwalla, and Gujerat. The English lost the first two, but the third (14th January, 1849) was a great and decisive victory, and the Punjab passed into the hands of the conquerors. Since then the Sikhs have been most loyal to the British flag.

The amazing vitality of the Sikh enables him to fight literally to his last breath. Sir Evelyn Wood told a story of a loyal Sikh in the Mutiny, which you will read about shortly. Although mortally wounded in the stomach, he presently rallied, remounted his horse and, galloping into the midst of the rebels, slew two men before dropping dead from his saddle.

In the great European War of 1914 the Indian troops distinguished themselves by carrying out successful night attacks. They would patiently crawl for hours across rough, sodden ground until the moment came for springing upon their foes.

The Sikhs also form excellent police, and are employed as such by several of the Colonial Governments.

We now come to a sad but glorious page in the story of our Empire in India. The famous Indian Mutiny, in 1857, was confined to a very small part of India, but it was a serious challenge to British rule over the whole vast country. The greater part of the country stood firm by British rule, and it was only the native soldiers of the Bengal army who revolted. The Sikh, the Mahratta, and the great races inhabiting the north of India had no grudge against the British. In fact, they helped us to put down the mutiny of the Bengal

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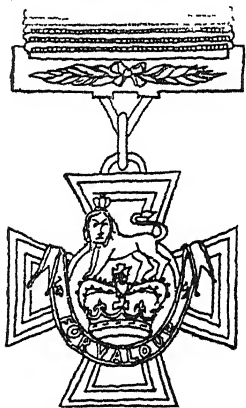
soldiers, and proof of this may be found on the flags of many Sikh, Gurkha, and other regiments, where Lucknow and Delhi will be found included in the 'battle honours' named thereon.

The causes of the outbreak cannot be discussed here ; the question belongs to political history, but it may shortly be said that the trouble was due to 'swelled head' among the Bengalese soldiers who had helped the British to conquer Further India, Scinde, and the Punjab, and who had imagined that it was they and not the British who were the real conquerors. This belief was taken advantage of by scheming natives who plotted to re-establish native empire in India, and they were aided by carelessness on the part of British officials and administrators, who lacked imagination. Whatever may have been the causes, the great efforts of India on behalf of the Empire in the Great War of 1914-18 have made the Mutiny a matter of very ancient history. So much so, that it is likely to be remembered in the future simply because of the connexion with it of certain great Englishmen like Sir John Nicholson, Sir Henry Havelock, Sir Henry Lawrence, and Sir James Outram.

The fighting centred, as so much of the fighting in India has always centred, around Delhi. The principal towns involved were Delhi, Lucknow, and Cawnpore. Delhi was besieged by the rebels on 11th May, 1857, captured by them not long after, and made their headquarters. The story of the defence of the magazine, or place where the gunpowder was stored, is worth telling. After the rebels had entered the city and killed all the white people in it, they tried to get into the powder magazine. This was defended by Lieutenant

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Willoughby and eight English soldiers. For nine hours these nine men held the place against hundreds of rebel troops. At the end of that time two had been killed, and the other seven were wounded. Further resistance was impossible, so to prevent the rebels getting the powder the magazine was blown up. There was a



The Victoria Cross

terrific explosion, and hundreds of rebel troops were blown to pieces. Five of these nine Englishmen escaped, but only four saw the end of the war—the gallant Willoughby being killed in a later action—and each of these four men received the Victoria Cross.

In the Mutiny no fewer than 182 heroes won the Victoria Cross, which had its origin in the Crimean War, and was primarily intended to be conferred upon junior commissioned officers and the rank and file. Neither rank, length of service, wounds, nor any circumstances whatsoever can qualify for this noble badge, save only a personal act of signal bravery performed in the presence of the enemy. The decoration was instituted by Queen Victoria in 1856, the Prince Consort being, it is said, its originator, and the designer of the insignia upon it.

Each Cross is made from bronze which once formed part of some Russian guns captured during the Crimean War, and although the medal itself is intrinsically worth only a few pence, a number have been purchased at sales for £100 and over. The V.C. carries with it an annuity, to non-commissioned officers and men, of £10,



The Destruction of the Kashmir Gate
A. Pearce

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which may, in cases of age, infirmity, and need, be increased to £50, payable quarterly.

Fifteen weeks after the explosion of the magazine at Delhi, the stern hand of Britain commenced to exact justice for the evils done by the rebels. Under the good Sir John Nicholson a force of British, Sikh, and Gurkha troops appeared before Delhi and captured the town, although it cost the life of Sir John Nicholson to do it. That great soldier is to this day an inspiration to countless numbers in India. He was feared, but loved. Even in his lifetime he was worshipped by thousands of natives, who regarded him as a god, and many would persist in trying to pray to him in his presence. His



Sir John Nicholson

favourite method with them—he was a man of very rough methods—was to kick them out of his tent. But his followers always treated this as a special mark of favour, and came in greater numbers to receive the same treatment. Before the days of the Mutiny Sir John Nicholson was Governor of the Punjab—the land of the Sikhs—and it was from here that his fame spread over India. He ruled with a strong hand. Let any chieftain on the borders try a raid on the lands he governed, and Nicholson instantly set out to punish. So great a terror was he to these raiders, that one of them said of him : “ Nicholson ! Ah, he is a real man. There is not one living in the

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hills who does not tremble at the mention of his name." Twelve years later another of these chieftains said : " Our women wake trembling at night, and say they hear the tramp of Nicholson's war-horse."

You have read that the Bengalese troops rebelled because they thought they were the real conquerors of India, and had only to mutiny in order to drive out the English. Well, after Delhi had been captured a young English captain named Hodson went off alone through the city to capture the rebel king. He found him hiding in a tomb. As he promised to go quietly if his life were spared, Hodson got a bullock carriage and, putting the king in it, drove him straight through Delhi to the English camp. Thousands of rebels saw Hodson and his captive, but they feared to attempt a rescue. History records no more remarkable feat than this of Hodson or Hodson's Horse. And when the pair reached the English camp a sentry challenged Hodson and demanded to know who was in the carriage. " Oh," said Hodson, " only the King of Delhi ! " Hodson was not content with this effort, however. Learning that the rebel king's two sons were in hiding, he went out again after them (they had given more trouble than their father). Finding them, he called on them to surrender. But they had a number of supporters and evidently thought of putting up a fight for their freedom. Without more to-do, and disregarding the other rebels, Hodson calmly drew his revolver and shot the princes on the spot. And, such was their terror of this young Englishman, the rebels scarcely moved to prevent his safe return to camp. For this shooting without a trial Captain Hodson was dismissed from the army, but in the opinion of many

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the shooting was not only justified but necessary. At a later date he was restored to his former rank.

One other fact about the fall of Delhi may be recalled. One of the first to enter the city after the defeat of the mutineers was a young Lieutenant Roberts, who afterward became Lord Roberts, one of the best beloved generals in the British Army. It was, in fact, the soldiers out in India who gave Lord Roberts the nickname 'Bobs,' by which he was affectionately known for many long years.

Lucknow was attacked by the rebels on 1st July, 1857. The British troops were under the command of Sir Henry Lawrence, but they were not sufficient in numbers to defend the whole of the city. They therefore retired to a range of buildings called the Residency, and for one hundred and thirteen days held the place against all attacks. They were then relieved by a British force under Generals Havelock and Outram.

One day, when those who were besieged had almost lost hope, a Scotswoman cried out that she heard the bagpipes in the distance. Headed by their pipers, a Scottish regiment was marching to the relief of Lucknow, and soon, above the noise of battle, the skirl of the pipes, playing *The Campbells are Coming*, could be heard by all. Fresh heart was given to the troops in the Residency, and we can imagine that the sound was like a death-knell to the rebels.

Within a few hours Lucknow was relieved, but the troops, marching in, found that another great Englishman had died in defending the Empire's flag. The simple epitaph on his tomb reads: "Here lies Henry Lawrence, who tried to do his duty. May God have mercy on him."

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One great result of the Indian Mutiny was that the East India Company, which had ruled so long in India, was swept away. In 1858, the year after the Mutiny, the Company was dissolved, and the British Crown took over the whole defence and administration of India. On 1st January, 1877, Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress in India. For the first time in its long history India was made one, and the authority of



Government House, New Delhi

the Queen was accepted from the Himalayas in the extreme north to Cape Comorin in the farthest south.

This brief history of India must not be closed without mention of the gallant Gurkhas, who are usually looked upon as being the most romantic warriors of India. They are often referred to as the "little brown men of the hills," because their home is in the mountainous district of Nepal. They put up a brave fight against the English in 1814-16, but by the time of the Mutiny they had become firm friends of Britain.

Colonel Ommanney, who has had about thirty years' experience with the Gurkhas, says that the many stories which have been told of their amazing skill and deadliness with their favourite weapon, the kukri (pronounced 'cookry'), have led many people to suppose that they are not skilled in the use of the rifle. This is

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quite erroneous, and, on the average, the Gurkhas are a match for almost any white regiment in shooting. When the Gurkha charges he does not discard his rifle, but balances it in his left hand, with the kukri in his right, firing with the left elbow pressed tight into the side and the left hand close up to the trigger guard.

Perhaps the most striking characteristic of the Gurkha is his devotion to his officers. Indeed, when going into action, a company will choose two of their number to protect each 'sahib' (officer), and if the picked men lose their sahib and are not killed themselves, life is made intolerable for them in the regiment.

Rather an amazing story is told of one Gurkha, who in action was told off as body-guard. When the action commenced the English officer in charge dashed forward too soon. Instantly the Gurkha ran after him, caught him, tripped him up, and sat on him. "Not yet, sahib," he said, and he sat calmly on his superior officer, with the enemy taking pot shots at him, until the order was given for the real advance. Then, very courteously, he helped the Englishman up.

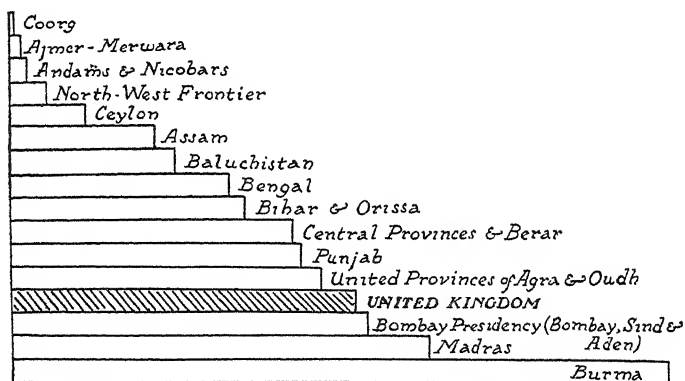
The Gurkha has been referred to as "the blood brother of the Highlander," and the term is in no sense exaggerated. It is a curious fact that the Gurkhas and the Highlanders, wherever they meet, become friends. The Scotsman can take liberties with the native when an ordinary man would probably get a broken head.

Many valiant deeds were performed by the Indian soldiers who fought for the Empire during the Great War, and brief details follow of how one soldier—

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Lance Naik Lala, who came from Cawnpore—gained a Victoria Cross in Flanders. The story, as it is told in the official records, is as follows :

“ Finding a British officer of another regiment lying close to the enemy, he dragged him into a temporary shelter which he himself had made, and in which he had already bandaged four wounded men. After bandag-



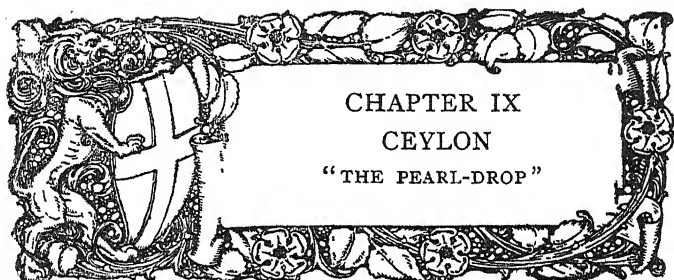
Comparative sizes of British Indian States and United Kingdom

ing his wounds he heard calls from the adjutant of his own regiment, who was lying in the open, severely wounded. The enemy were not more than a hundred yards distant, and it seemed certain death to go out in that direction, but Lance Naik Lala insisted on going out to his adjutant, and offered to crawl back at once. When this was not permitted he stripped off his own clothing to keep the wounded officer warmer, and stayed with him until just before dark, when he returned to the shelter. After dark he carried the first wounded officer back to the main trenches and then, returning with a stretcher, he carried back his adjutant. He set

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a magnificent example of courage and devotion to his officers.”

Khaki colour is said to have originated in India. It is generally admitted by historians that the 52nd Regiment, when coming down country from the Punjab at the time of the Mutiny, was the first regiment to wear khaki, having its American drill summer clothing dyed to that colour.

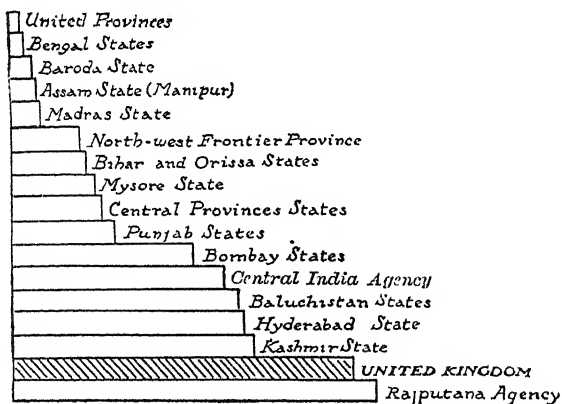


CHAPTER IX

CEYLON

"THE PEARL-DROP"

SEPARATED from India by only a few miles of water lies the island of Ceylon, the home of the quaint Cingalese, called by the poets of old "the pearl drop on the brow of Ind" (India). It is much more closely connected with the mainland of India than it appears to be. It is, in fact, very nearly



Comparative sizes of Principal Native States and United Kingdom

joined to it, thanks to the Manar and Rameshwaram Islands and a coral reef known as Adam's Bridge.

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Ceylon is such a beautiful place that in ancient times it was thought to be the paradise or Eden of the Old Testament, and the reef was said to be the natural bridge across which Adam and Eve went when they were expelled from the Garden—hence its name, 'Adam's Bridge.' On a mountain called 'Adam's Peak,' in the middle of the island, is a depression, about six feet long, which tradition claimed to be one of Adam's footprints.

Ceylon has an area of nearly 26,000 square miles. In other words, it is about half the size of England, or a trifle smaller than Ireland. The greatest length of the island is 267 miles (as far as Carlisle is from London), and its greatest breadth, 145 miles (as far as Doncaster is from London). The en-



If Ceylon were in England

tire population in 1919 was a little over 4,000,000, and that of Colombo, the capital, about 150,000, or about the same as the city of Dundee.

Previous to the British occupation of Ceylon the island belonged to the Dutch, and before them to the Portuguese, the latter having a fort at Colombo. In 1589 an English trader named Ralph Fitch of London (one of the first Englishmen to attempt trading in the East), after travelling about India for six years, landed in Ceylon, and his account of the island is interesting. Writing home to his friends in England, he said :

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“ It pleased God that we arrived in Ceylon the 6th of March [1589], where we stayed five days to water and furnish ourselves with provisions. This Ceylon is a brave island, very fruitful and fair ; but by reason of continued wars with the king therefore all things are very dear, for he will not suffer anything to be brought to the castle where the Portuguese be—wherefore often times there is a great want of victuals. Their provisions cometh out of Bengal every year. The king is called Raia, and is of great force, for he cometh to Colombo, which is the place where the Portugals have their fort, with 100,000 men and many elephants. The people are naked, all of them ; yet many of them be good with their muskets. When the king talketh with any man he standeth on one leg and sets the other foot upon his knee holding a sword in his hand—it is not proper for the king to sit when talking—he must stand, and his costume is a painted cloth made of cotton wool, about his middle ; his hair is long and bound up about his head ; all the rest of his body being naked, and his guard are a thousand men which stand about him ; he in the middle. The people are called Cingalese. Their ears are very large ; for the greater they are the more honourable they are thought. Some of them are a span (nine inches) long. The wood they burn is Cinnamon wood, and it smells very sweet. There is a great store of rubies and sapphires in the Island ; the best kind of all we have, but the king will not suffer the inhabitants to dig them, lest his enemies would know of them and make wars against him and so drive him out of his country. They have no horses in the country. The elephants be not so great as those of Pegu [Farther India], but they say all other elephants

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do fear them, and never dare fight with them though they are so small. The women have a cloth bound about them from their middle to their knees, and all the rest is bare. Their houses are very little, made of the branches of the palm or coco tree, and covered with the leaves of the same tree."

The Portuguese went to Ceylon in 1506, and were driven out by the Dutch a hundred and fifty years later. The Hollanders, however, never troubled about the interior of the island, being quite satisfied with Colombo and the coast. The interior of the island was governed by a race of native kings, called the kings of Kandy, Kandy being the chief town and capital before the rise of Colombo and the increase of trade with the island. Kandy still remains, and is famous for its beautiful old buildings.

British settlers first came to the island in the year 1795, and after some little troubles with the Dutch settlers the latter were driven out. There was, however, no serious fighting, because it was agreed that the island of Java, jointly held by the Dutch and British for trading purposes, should be given over entirely to the Dutch in exchange for the coasts of Ceylon, or rather the British retired from Java and left it in possession of their rival traders in the East, who still hold it. Thus, instead of the English and Dutch quarrelling about Ceylon and Java, one nation took possession of one and its rival of the other.

Things went very well with the English traders on the coasts of Ceylon, but in the interior, where the native king reigned, things were in a very unsettled state. The ruler was a cruel and disagreeable person, who thought nothing of killing those of his subjects

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who displeased him. Things became so uncomfortable, not only for the British on the coasts, but also for the native inhabitants, that an expedition to the interior was decided upon, as it was thought that a sight of the British soldiers would induce the king—Wikrama Raja Singha by name—to reform.

Accordingly an armed force of 200 British and 500 Malay soldiers, under Major Davis, started from the coast on a march to Kandy. Unfortunately many of the soldiers were not used to the trying climate, and sickness attacked the small army before it had gone very far. In spite of severe illnesses and many deaths, however, the journey to the king's capital was continued, but with the most unfortunate results. The weakened army was quickly overpowered by some of the king's faithful followers, many of the British being captured and afterward taken out of the city and killed. The gallant Major escaped death, but was a prisoner in Kandy for seven years before it was possible to release him.

The king, it need hardly be said, was very pleased at his victory. As no British or Malay soldiers put in an appearance after the great slaughter, he thought he would march his small army to the coast and drive out the remainder of his enemies from the island. The English, however, had increased in number and strength, and the massacre at Kandy had not been forgotten. It was an old score that had to be paid off, the English simply preparing and waiting their time in order to do the business thoroughly.

The king and his army reached the coast, where they found the English settlers much too strong for them, but not yet strong enough to defeat them. Eventually,

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however, the Cingalese were badly beaten in a battle near the coast, the king and his forces retiring in a disorganized state to the capital.

Several years passed without further serious fighting. The king became a greater tyrant than ever, both ministers and subjects being murdered by him. His reign, however, was drawing rapidly to a close. His people became alarmed, and after the murder of some rich traders, said to be British subjects, who were popular with them, the natives revolted, and appealed for help to the British on the coasts. This rising took place early in the year 1815, and in the month of March the king was captured, he having scarcely a friend left, and certainly not a soldier of his own to fight for him. He was sent as a prisoner to a fort near Madras, where he died seven years later.

The people of the interior now asked the British to take possession of and govern the entire island, which they did, since when all has gone well in Ceylon except for three small risings—one in 1817 because of some religious trouble, and others in 1843 and 1845, the last two arising out of the introduction of certain taxes.

The name that stands out most prominently in the history of the making of Ceylon into the valuable possession that it is to-day, is that of Thomas (afterward Major) Skinner, who is often referred to as the civilizer of Ceylon. Skinner was born at St John's, Newfoundland, in the year 1804, his father being one of the British soldiers quartered in that colony. His mother died when he was young, and he was afterward sent to an English school (Shaftesbury, in Dorsetshire) to be educated. He had no relations in England, and being

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a friendless lad his schoolmaster was very kind to him, and he was very happy. History tells us that he was something of a dunce, but very brave. At the age of fourteen he had a longing to become a sailor, and was sent out to Ceylon in order to join the Navy in the Indian Seas. His father had by this time been moved to Ceylon, and when young Tom arrived, his father was so disappointed to find him so badly educated that he began to make arrangements for the lad to be sent back to England for further schooling. The idea, however, was eventually given up, as was also the sailor life, and when approaching the age of fifteen years Tom was placed in a regiment of the British Army then quartered in the island. His bravery and daring were at once recognized, and even before he could obtain his uniform he was placed in command of a detachment that was to go from Trincomalee, through Kandy, to Colombo. Young Tom begged to be excused, as he said he would look rather silly leading full-grown British soldiers when dressed in his school clothes. He had an idea that the soldiers would laugh, and so they did—at first; but they soon discovered that, like Clive and Wolfe, he was a born leader. Neither he nor the soldiers, however, could foresee that he was to spend about fifty years in the island, and become the best-loved man and the most careful organizer of his generation.

Skinner's progress was rapid and his adventures many. He had not been in the island many days before he met a wild elephant of enormous size. He had never seen an elephant before, even a tame one, but he was not afraid. When he first saw the animal it was chasing a soldier, and young Skinner, climbing up

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a rock, took careful aim at the monster's head and shot it dead. The story rapidly spread throughout the small army, and Skinner was made much of. All the soldiers who heard of the exploit of their youthful officer asked leave to go and see the dead body of the elephant, and there was great rejoicing when its head was cut off and Skinner took possession of the pair of splendid tusks. He once stated that he believed his success in life to be due chiefly to his abstinence from alcoholic liquors. He had a horror of even the smell of beer and spirits, and strongly advocated weak cold tea as the best drink at all times in Ceylon¹ and other very hot climates.

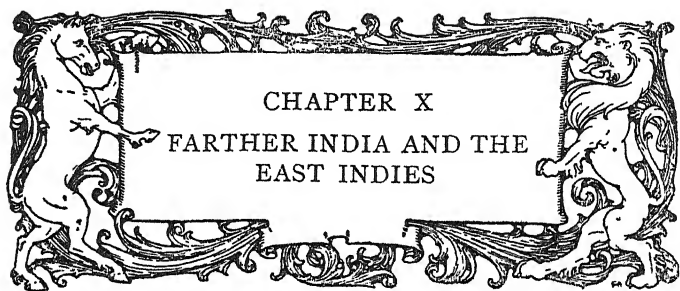
Major Skinner saw little or no actual fighting, as Ceylon was at the time fairly peaceful, and we next hear of him in 1821, in which year he was appointed road-maker. Ceylon was then an immense jungle, and the Government decided that good roads and bridges must be made in order to make travelling more easy. He was placed in charge of 200 natives, who had never, as he writes, "seen a yard of made road in the country for the best reasons—that such a thing did not exist." These men worked splendidly, and Skinner received many words of praise from the Government. His greatest trouble, he tells us, was the wild elephants that used to go at night and destroy the embankments made during the day, and his great pleasure was to sit up all night in order to shoot them. When Skinner retired from his useful work, he was proud to see the wonderful change that had been made in the island. All streams and canals made by the previous Dutch possessors had been bridged over at the most important parts, 3000 miles of road had been made,

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and a railway between Kandy and Colombo opened. Very truly Major Skinner was one of the most industrious of the many men who have helped to make the British Empire what it is.

The trade of the island is mainly with the United Kingdom and India. Coffee-planting was the chief industry from the time of the entry of the British until 1870, when a blight killed nearly all the plants, and so disheartened the people that they have never again attempted to set the coffee industry on a really sound footing. Tea-planting is now the chief industry, and some thousands of acres are devoted to it.

Ceylon is now a very valuable possession. The port of Colombo, being the most central port in the Indian Ocean, is often called the "Clapham Junction of the Eastern Seas"; it is there that travellers often change ships for Australia, India, and China.



CHAPTER X

FARTHER INDIA AND THE EAST INDIES

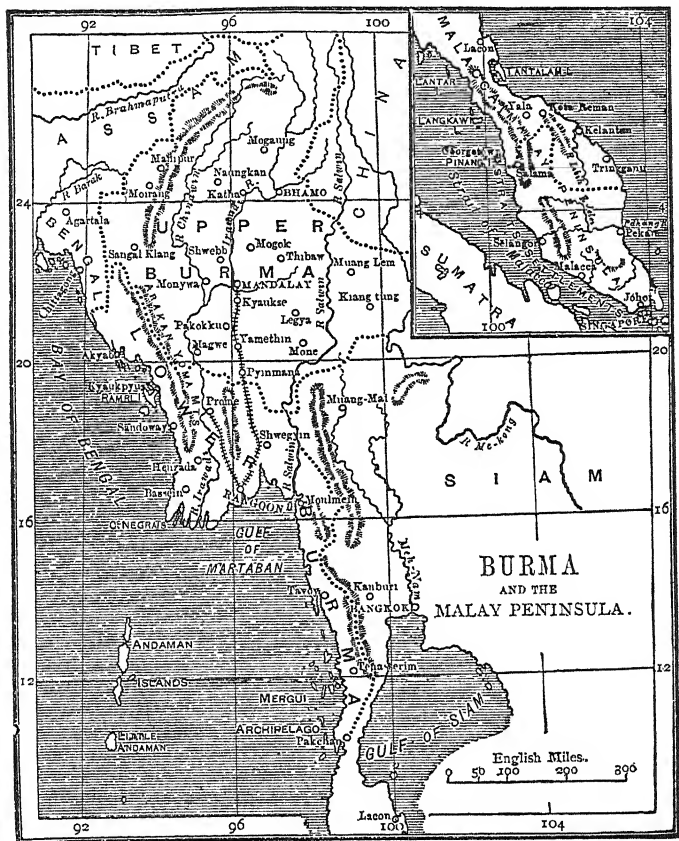
LOOKING upon a map of India, you will see that it is bounded on the east by the Bay of Bengal, and on the far side of the bay a great stretch of territory, called Farther India, tails away into a rather narrow strip of land, called the Malay Peninsula, some hundreds of miles long. Farther India and the Malay Peninsula are British possessions. Valuable in themselves, they are necessary adjuncts if India is to be secure from attack from the east. The great unexplored teak forests of Burma offer as impenetrable a barrier to hostile forces as do the wastes of Baluchistan, the mountains of the Hindu Kush, and the Himalayas on the west.

BURMA.—The ancient empire of the Burmese may be said to embrace the entire basin of the River Irawadi ('Elephant River'), some 1000 miles long (navigable for about 900 miles) and entering the sea, through one of the largest and most intricate deltas of any river, in the Gulf of Martaban, on which stands Rangoon.

From about the year 1817 to 1819 India was itself engaged in what is known to history as the Pindari War. The Pindaris and certain Marathi chiefs organized bands.

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of freebooters and robbers with which they made inroads on Bengal and Madras, and it needed a force of



100,000 men and at least three defeats—Kirki, Sitapur, and Mahidpore—to teach them their lesson. The Burmese adjudged this a convenient time to start

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making trouble, and invaded the Indian States, to continue that process of expansion which had already given them the states of Pegu (1757) and Arakan (1774). As a consequence (in 1824) an expedition of 11,000 men was sent against them, under the able generalship of Sir Archibald Campbell.

In the words of a military writer—the Hon. J. W. Fortescue : “ Few expeditions have been undertaken with more fatuous contempt of information and inquiry than this one. The army was sent by sea to Rangoon with orders to ascend the Irawadi by water, capturing all the principal cities which lie upon its banks, and so penetrating to Ava. As the province of Pegu, in which Rangoon stands, was a comparatively recent conquest of the Burmese, it was assumed that the inhabitants would be friendly and native supplies plentiful. On the contrary the troops found Rangoon deserted, no boats, no native pilots, and were obliged to remain in and about the city, eating such salted and preserved provisions as they had brought with them, until a fresh supply could be brought from India. Having arrived at the beginning of the rainy season, in order to have plenty of water to ascend the river, the British had to endure all the misery and unhealthiness of the rains, aggravated by bad food, with the result that sickness made havoc of the troops, and reduced their effectiveness in one moment to 3000 men.”

The war with the Burmese brought to light many interesting novelties in the nomenclature of their army. The ‘ Golden Foot ’ appears to have been the supreme military chief, and ‘ Golden Umbrellas ’ were the generals in active command. Orders were issued in

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the name of ' the Lord of the White Elephant ' (the Emperor), but not until the astrologers had read in the stars the lucky hour when success would be certain.

The advance of the native Burmese army toward the British positions, its chiefs on horseback and shaded from the sun by glittering gilt umbrellas, must have presented a strange appearance. And the place selected by the British, in 1824, to await the attack was equally strange. It was known as the Golden Dragon Pagoda, a building venerated by the Burmese, and in which an annual festival was held. The Pagoda was really a fortress over 300 feet high, with a domed roof of brass heavily gilded.

Numerous onslaughts on the Pagoda were made by the Burmese, but all attacks were beaten off, the last of them taking place in December (1824), when the enemy are said to have found their losses in the six months of fighting to have amounted to 30,000 men.

Another fourteen months had to pass, however, before the Burmese sought peace, and in that interval the British were able to advance and get within sixty miles of Ava.

By the Peace of Yandabo (24th February, 1826) Burma was deprived of most of its power, was forced to cede Assam, Arakan, and Tenasserim, made to pay an indemnity of £1,000,000, and to receive a British Resident in Rangoon. Thus ended the first Burmese War, but at considerable cost in lives, and even in credit to British arms.

The lesson of the ill-judged war of 1824-26 was lost on the Burmese, and about 1837 the Burmese king

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thought fit to tackle the English once more. English missionaries were ill-used, English traders were maltreated, and in 1840 the British Resident at Rangoon had to be withdrawn owing to disrespectful treatment. Vengeance came to Rangoon in 1852, in the shape of a British force of 20,000 men, which opened the second Burmese war. All the towns around the mouth of the River Irawadi were captured in a very short time—Martaban fell on 5th April, 1852; Rangoon, Prome, and Bassein by 21st November, and on 20th December of the same year the province of Pegu was proclaimed as British territory by the Governor-General of India, Lord Dalhousie. The Burmese thus found their richest province, with its great rice-growing lands, lost to them as the result of a short and sharp war. From that time onward the Burmese empire was to be an inland country, with no access to the sea except through foreign territory.

In 1862 the three provinces of Arakan, Pegu, and Tenasserim, gained as the result of the first and second Burmese wars, were united under a Chief Commissioner into one possession, known as British Burma.

About this time, France and Italy began to take an active interest in this part of the world. Italy signed a commercial treaty with Burma in 1871, and France followed suit in 1873. Signs were not lacking in addition that the aspirations of the Burmese rulers were again mounting, and they sent ambassadors to Europe in the years 1872, 1874, and 1877. The final act in the existence of a Burmese empire came in 1878, when the infamous Thebaw ascended the throne. In the long list of kings and emperors who have made names for themselves by their atrocities, Thebaw holds

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a high place, and he signalized his accession to power by a wholesale massacre of his nearest relatives. Thebaw was determined that he would have no rival to the throne. His attitude to every Englishman in his state, his replies to protest from the viceroys of India, his treatment of traders resident in his capital of Mandalay, brought their inevitable result. In 1885 it was suspected that he was preparing to accept France as the dominating European influence in Burma. An ultimatum was sent to him demanding that he should accept a British Resident at Mandalay, and that he should be advised on all matters of foreign policy by the British Government. Thebaw replied in defiant language. Once more, on the 14th November, 1885, war was declared. A force of 10,000 men was sent under General Prendergast, and within a fortnight Mandalay, Thebaw's capital, was captured, and Thebaw himself taken prisoner.

Thebaw was deported to India forthwith, but it took two years of what has often been called 'the Subalterns' War' finally to subdue and suppress the 'dacoits' (marauders and freebooters) throughout the length and breadth of Burma. Possessing an intimate knowledge of the great forests and jungles, these dacoits had to be followed to their lairs, and this work was entrusted to young lieutenants commanding small forces of soldiers. In 1886 Burma was added to the Empire.

MALAY PENINSULA AND EAST INDIES.—A long strip of land not many miles wide, reaching almost to the Equator, juts out from Indo-China. This is the Malay Peninsula. The peninsula derives its importance from three factors—it lies in the way of all commerce with China and Japan, and thus forms a convenient place for

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an *entrepôt* ; it has long been one of the principal parts of the world for mining tin ; in recent years it has sprung to the front as the home of the cultivated rubber tree, 'plantation rubber,' as it is called. Washed on either side by the waters of two oceans, the peninsula enjoys a climate of astonishing mildness and equability for a region of the tropics, and the vegetation is correspondingly luxuriant.

The first Europeans to settle there were the Portuguese. They were afterward displaced by the Dutch, who to this day have great possessions in this part of the world—the islands of Sumatra and Java. During the Napoleonic wars the Dutch were allied to the French under compulsion, and, as was the case in other parts of the world, the Dutch East Indian possessions were captured by the British. The Dutch, however, were forced allies of the French, and at the conclusion of the wars their lands were restored to them.

British possessions in this part of the world now include the 'Straits Settlements' as Crown colonies, the 'Federated Malay State,' a British protectorate, and Sarawak, Brunei, and British North Borneo on the island of Borneo, also protectorates.

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.—The Straits Settlements comprise Singapore, Malacca, Penang, and the islands Labuan, Christmas, and Cocos.

Penang was acquired by purchase from one of the Sultans of the Malay States in 1785, and for many years it was the centre of British interests in this part of the world. Wellesley was similarly bought in 1798. The island of Singapore was also purchased, in 1819, from the Sultan of Johore. Up to 1867 the islands were under the administration of the Government of India ; in

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that year they were made into a Crown colony under a governor. The Cocos Islands came under British jurisdiction in 1886, and Christmas Island in 1888.

The mention of Singapore recalls the name of Sir Stamford Raffles—one of the Empire's immortal sons. Born in 1781, at sea, off the coast of Jamaica, he



Sir Stamford Raffles

early developed a wandering spirit, and in 1805 was sent out to the East on behalf of the East India Company, in whose service he was a clerk. In the Napoleonic Wars, Raffles was on duty in the island of Java, then in British occupation. His sagacity enabled him to detect the great possibilities of an outpost of Empire on the small uninhabited island of Singapore. He proposed its purchase to the English Government, and in February 1819

the English flag was raised there.

Clever and far-seeing man that he was, Raffles foresaw in 1819 that the neglected island would one day become the meeting-point of races and routes, and give to Britain the supremacy of the Eastern Seas. With his own hand, on that eventful February morning (28th), he hoisted the Union Jack on the ruins of the ancient capital of the Malays, the unsuspecting Dutch laughing in their sleeve at the stupidity of the English dreamer. Sir Stamford was of the type of General Gordon. He declared that the native, when trusted, was himself the most trustworthy of mortals; and the white ruler,

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therefore, went unarmed and accessible to the meanest. His faith in the Malay was justified, and he became the most loved man in the country.

In 1919 Singapore had a population of about 300,000 ; it is one of the world's greatest interchanging markets, and a strongly fortified naval base.

The small group of islands called the Cocos-Keeling Islands are prominent in recent history as having been the scene of the destruction of the German warship *Emden* by the Australian cruiser *Sydney*. The *Emden*, after a successful career in the destruction of British commerce, was caught while attempting to destroy the wireless telegraph station on one of the islands. A sharp action followed, and the *Emden* was driven ashore, a total wreck.

About the year 1825 a British naval officer named John Clunies-Ross conceived the idea of founding an ideal state on these islands, and he sought for settlers in his native country of Scotland. Returning with a party of Scotsmen, he found that he had been forestalled by one Alexander Hare, with a following of about 200 slaves presented to him by the Rajah of Bandju. After some time Hare found himself replaced in the affections of his followers by Mr Ross, and the latter was able to realize his aims.

John Clunies-Ross married a Malay lady, some say a princess in her own right, and for twenty-nine years the self-constituted ' king ' enjoyed a reign of peace and prosperity. He died in 1854, and was succeeded by a son, who ' reigned ' for seventeen years. He died in 1871, and was succeeded by his son, George, who was a very able man, and made the islands what they are to-day—an ideally governed community.

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The Ross family still (1919) hold the islands, the present 'king' being Mr Sidney Clunies-Ross, the great-grandson of the original governor of the islands. On a visit to England in August, 1910, when he came over in connexion with the administration of his father's estate, which was proved at over £200,000 exclusive of his property in the islands, he said: "I am plain Mr Sidney Clunies-Ross here, but when I get back to Cocos Islands I shall have quite enough of kingship to last me a lifetime. It's true that when I am at home I shall be a king with more power than most monarchs, with a royal palace that cost a fortune to build, with my own laws to administer in my own way, and no ministry to worry me." 'King' Sidney gave his people a very high character, saying that they were a "strictly moral community." Drunkenness is not allowed, and beyond the little whisky that is doled out from the palace, no intoxicating liquors are obtainable in the islands. The population of the islands—which were visited by Darwin in 1836, and described by him in his *Voyage of the Beagle*—consists mostly of Malays.

In 1886 the islands were added to the Straits Settlements, but their government is still in the hands of the Ross family.

Christmas Island is one of the outer small islands of the Malay Archipelago. Like many of the small islets scattered upon the oceans, it was made a British possession chiefly in order to prevent its being used as a base by rival powers. The island has only a dozen or so white inhabitants.

FEDERATED MALAY STATES.—These states are all independent but are under British protection, and they occupy a large section of the Malay Peninsula from

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Singapore to Burma. With the exception of the state of Johore, they are all administered by the native Sultan, assisted by a Council with a British Resident. Johore has no British Resident, and the internal affairs are wholly in the hands of the Sultan, who, however, leaves his relations with foreigners in the hands of the Commissioner of the Federated Malay States.

The extension of British protection to this part of the world has been entirely peaceful, the several native sultans having displayed true sagacity in their choice of a protector. British protection has attracted English money, and thanks to the wonderful tin mines and rubber cultivation, these states are among the wealthiest in the world.

A final addition was made to the Federated States in the year 1909, under a British treaty with Siam. The latter by this treaty gave up her rights over about 15,000 square miles of territory lying just south of Burma in return for some—to her—valuable commercial and trading privileges.

BORNEO AND SARAWAK.—Borneo, so far as it is British, is in part under the jurisdiction of the Governor of the Straits Settlements, and its history can be most conveniently related here. Next to Australia and New Guinea, Borneo is the largest island on the globe. About one quarter of the island, with a coast-line of some 900 miles, is under the British flag. The British portion consists of the provinces of Sarawak, Brunei, and British North Borneo—in size a trifle larger than Ireland.

The story of the English connexion with Borneo commences in 1609, when the East India Company attempted to trade on the south side of the island. They were driven off by the Dutch, who were installed there. The

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Company then tried the north side of the island, but the natives never took kindly to foreign traders, and after about a century and a half of struggling trade, both English and Dutch were forced out of the island.

We hear no more of Borneo again until 1819, when the British traders in Singapore drew attention to it,



Rajah Brooke

and shortly afterward another attempt at trading was made. The coasts and seas, however, were infested with pirates—chiefly Arabs and Chinese—and legitimate trade was almost impossible. A knight-errant to the traders appeared on the scene in the person of James Brooke, an official of the East India Company, who had been wounded in the war in Burma, and who was *en route* to China in search of health. He stayed to war on

the pirates, with the aid of a huge fortune left him by his father. Luck came his way. Calling at what is now Sarawak (in the year 1839) he found that the Sultan of Brunei had started hostilities with the buccaneers, and he allied himself with this ruler, and together they swept the pirates away. For this Brooke earned the gratitude of the Sultan, who conferred upon him the province of Sarawak for his timely aid.

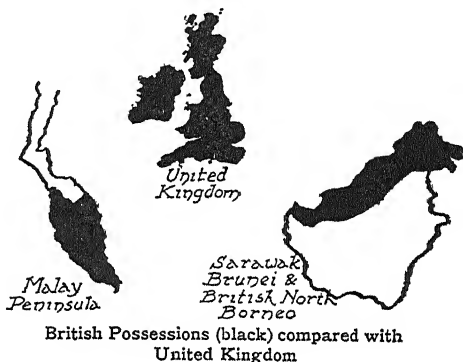
Rajah Brooke, as he is known to fame and history, found in Sarawak a country about the size of England, and he set about developing it. Under his wise rule it reached prosperity and a degree of peace unknown for

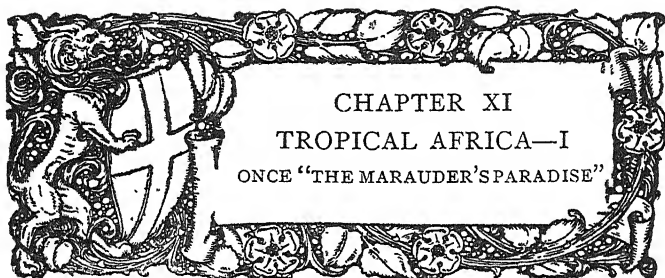
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centuries—not without further fighting, however, for he had to suppress at least two risings against his rule. At first he was subject to the Sultan, who had given him the province. At a later stage he threw off his allegiance and became quite independent. Rajah (or Sir James) Brooke died in 1868, and a little before his death he offered his Eastern kingdom to the British Government, but the offer was refused and Sarawak passed to Sir James's nephew, Sir Charles Brooke.

In 1881 a trading company—the British North Borneo Company — was established to develop the country to the east of Sarawak, on the north coast. This company is still in existence, and has developed this part of Borneo.

British protection was extended to Northern Borneo in the year 1888, about the time when Germany was seeking territory in Pacific waters. The two states of Sarawak and Brunei and the British North Borneo province were taken over at the same time, and by this measure some 77,000 square miles were added to the Empire. The internal affairs of Sarawak are in the hands of Rajah Brooke, those of British North Borneo being controlled by the British North Borneo Company, while Brunei is under a High Commissioner, who is also Governor of the Straits Settlements.





FOR the European tropical Africa is what the old Wild West of America used to be to the citizen of the United States. In the Wild West the Red Indian roamed at large, and travellers and settlers carried their lives in their hands when they ventured into the territories of 'Sitting Bull' and others of the Red Indian chiefs. Tropical Africa was no better. It was, and still is to some extent, the home of cannibalism, the centre of witchcraft, and the land of tropical jungle, where dangers of every kind beset the would-be traveller and trader.

Death in all its forms—murder by natives, killing by dangerous animals, and death from terrible pestilence—lurked at almost every step. And the white man has ridden triumphant over all these evils, and has brought the district within the possible borders of civilization. Tropical Africa has always been the more or less happy hunting-ground of the missionary, the explorer, and the trader. The missionary was moved by the heathenish state of the natives, the explorer sought to bring within human survey the mysteries of the 'Dark Continent,' and the trader was drawn by the promise of great trading possibilities.

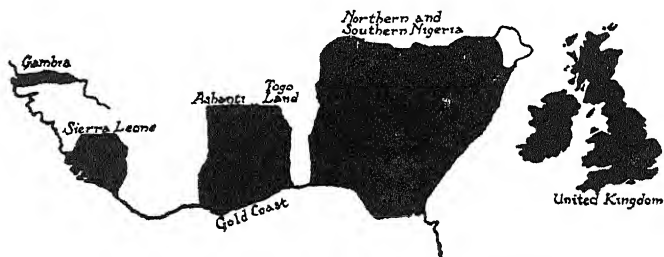
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The British share of tropical Africa amounts at the present time (1919) to more than 1,000,000 square miles. Of this, about one half is in East and Central Africa, and the remaining half in the west of the continent. Almost without exception this vast extent of land has been added to the Empire in the peaceful pursuits of trade and exploration. On the eastern side the British East Africa Company obtained its Royal Charter, or permission, in 1888. On the western side the Royal Niger Company received its Royal Charter in 1886. In addition to these Chartered Companies, other concerns, such as the African Association of Liverpool, the British Bank of West Africa, and Mr Alfred Holt of Liverpool, opened up numerous trading centres along the West Coast of Africa. And the united effect of these companies has been to create a great and valuable trade within the bounds of the Empire. Wherever they have established themselves, to trade in the native products of ivory, rubber, palm oil, and other articles, the Union Jack has been raised, and defended where necessary.

Tropical Africa bears the impress of civilian endeavour. Explorers such as Mungo Park, David Livingstone, and Mary Kingsley on the west, and Speke, Grant, Baker, Lugard, and Livingstone again on the east, gave us a valuable knowledge of the country. Missionaries like Bishop Hannington (murdered by King Mwanga of Uganda) and Saker, and hundreds of almost anonymous men and women sent out by the London Missionary Society (of whom Livingstone was the chief and most famous), the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, the Universities' Mission, and other missionary bodies, brought still more knowledge

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and left a civilizing influence. Slowly building up a trade on the work of such men, and in turn ever widening the circle of influence of the white man, have come traders like Mr Alfred Holt, Sir George Taubman Goldie (Royal Niger Company), Sir Alfred Jones (British Bank of West Africa, and Elder Dempster Steamship Company), and Sir Frederick Lugard (a Governor of



West Coast of Africa compared with United Kingdom

the Niger Territory, who retired in 1919), to found trading stations in charge of white men upon the coasts and in the interior of this wonderful part of the Empire.

Our possessions in West Africa consist of Gambia, Sierra Leone, the Gold Coast (Ashanti), Togoland, Southern Nigeria (Lagos), and Northern Nigeria. The west coast of the continent was discovered by the Portuguese in the fifteenth century when trying to find a way to India by sea, and they were the first white settlers. Two hundred years later all the principal countries of Europe (except Spain) had claimed their share of the coast and were opening up trade. This trade was none other than the famous slave trade, and it is to the operations of the first traders on the West Coast of Africa that America owes her vast negro population.

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When the slave trade was stopped in 1807, the popularity of the West Coast waned somewhat, and both Holland and Denmark gave up what land they had seized. The suppression of the slave trade had the excellent effect of compelling traders to develop the natural resources of the country, instead of its human resources. The British possessions which have been named were not originally colonies, but trading stations or settlements. The towns and ports were used as storehouses for products collected in the neighbourhood for shipment to England and other places.

GAMBIA.—Gambia is the smallest of our West African possessions (it is only about 69 square miles in area, with a 'protectorate' of 3911 square miles). It extends 250 miles along each bank of the Gambia river, seldom exceeding an average width of 12 miles. The river was discovered by the Portuguese in 1447, and in 1588, when England was at war with Spain and Portugal, Queen Elizabeth gave a charter to some Exeter merchants to trade with Gambia. The trade in those days was chiefly in slaves. In 1618 the first Englishmen went there to settle, and they had not been there long when they built a fort at the mouth of the river. The great rivals of the English were the French and Portuguese, but the traders of the three nations worked together peaceably, and in September, 1783, under the Treaty of Versailles, which closed the war between England and France, Spain and the United States, Gambia came finally under British rule. In 1807 the colony was put under the government of the neighbouring colony of Sierra Leone, but in 1843 the two were again separated, and the colony of Gambia

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created. In 1888 it was made a Crown colony. The chief town is Bathurst (six days' journey from London). The principal export is ground nuts, which form four-fifths of the total exports. They are sent chiefly to France, where the oil is extracted and used for the same purpose as olive oil. Owing to our great friendship with France, the latter nation was in 1904 given permission to trade on the river.

SIERRA LEONE.—Sierra Leone, near to Gambia, has a coast-line of 180 miles. Part of it (4300 square miles) is a colony, and part (28,110 square miles) a protectorate, the combined districts forming an area of about the size of Scotland. The capital is Freetown, 3078 miles from Liverpool.

The story of Sierra Leone, so far as it has been under British rule, is a curious one. Alone among all the colonies of the Empire it was acquired from purely philanthropic motives. Originally it was a famous centre of the slave trade. Discovered in 1463 by the Portuguese, it remained a small settlement for some years, and not until a hundred years later did an Englishman set foot in it. This was Sir John Hawkins, the famous seaman of Queen Elizabeth's reign, the leader and founder of the English slave trade. Hawkins amassed a fortune through his slave dealings, and on being knighted adopted as his crest a demi-Moor in bondage!

The slave trade flourished in the colony, and in 1787 the territory was ceded to Great Britain by the native chiefs, and certain philanthropists, foremost among whom were Granville Sharp and Dr Smeathman, established a colony there for the reception of slaves who had obtained their liberty by coming to England in the service of

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their masters. Two years later, however, a neighbouring chief attacked and broke up the settlement.

The anti-slavery movement was begun in 1782 by Thomas Clarkson, with whom was associated William Wilberforce, and in order that a fresh start might be made, Sierra Leone was in 1791 acquired by a body of philanthropists and formed into a trading company, in which William Wilberforce was the moving spirit, for the settling of freed slaves on the continent whence they or their fathers had been removed in previous years.

In 1792 a motion was passed in the House of Commons for the gradual abolition of the slave trade, but it was not until 1807 that an Order in Council forbade the trade in new colonies.



Wilberforce

The company responsible for Sierra Leone had now no further use for the place and dissolved, handing over Sierra Leone to the Crown. Certainly a curious beginning for a prosperous Crown colony.

In the eighties of last century the French were making vast strides in their occupation of the countries bordering on the Sahara Desert. If Sierra Leone was not to remain a small place, with no hinterland in which to trade, an extension of territory was imperative. Accordingly a protectorate was established—now some 30,000 square miles—over the tribes in the country around Sierra Leone. These tribes are of a warlike

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race, and numerous small wars resulted, such as the Youri expedition of 1886, and the rather serious rising of 1898, following on the imposition of a hut tax on the natives of the protectorates.

No trouble has been experienced since, and under a wise and experienced council the Crown colony is one of the most prosperous in the Empire. Once known as the 'White Man's Grave,' from the terrible mortality among the white inhabitants, Sierra Leone is now comparatively healthy, thanks to the introduction of measures to eradicate the cause of malaria—the mosquito.

THE GOLD COAST (ASHANTI).—The Gold Coast Colony extends about 350 miles along the coast of Guinea, and comprises the former kingdom of Ashanti. The area owned by Britain extends to an average distance of 440 miles inland, so that the territory is about as large as England and Scotland combined. The Gold Coast was first visited by Englishmen in 1591, and twenty-five years later some British traders built a fort and some factories there. Trade increased rapidly, more forts and factories were built, and in 1662 a trading company was formed, which, in 1820, surrendered its rights to the British Government.

Originally the Gold Coast, as the name signifies, was confined to the coast. The English and Dutch were the principal occupants, and they had forts and settlements here and there, but principally on the Sweet river. The English trade was in the hands of the Royal African Company of England, and it was principally an export trade in slaves to the West Indies and the Spanish territories in America. It is said that in the twenty years from 1713 to 1733 no less than 300,000

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slaves were captured or bought and shipped to America. The course of years saw British influence extended, until it became paramount on the Gold Coast. And it was now that the natives of the state just behind the coast began to claim a sovereignty over it. The King of Ashanti claimed the soil, and in the first Ashanti War of 1817 he so far succeeded as to obtain a tribute from the British of a few ounces of gold a month.

The Dutch and English, by Convention, in 1867, decided on a friendly division of their forts and factories, in order that their respective lands might be better defined and managed.

The King of Ashanti had no objection to foreign traders, but he preferred the Dutch to the English, and when the traders from Holland gave up their trading places he declared war, and did all he could to upset the trade carried on by Britons. Owing to his objectionable interfering tactics, English troops were sent to put an end to the Ashanti troubles once and for all. The troops were under Sir Garnet Wolseley, and, after a great march of 10,000 men through primeval forests, the Ashanti capital was taken and burnt to the ground.

In 1895 another war broke out. The Ashanti capital (Kumassi) was taken by the British, the king (Prempeh) captured, and the whole of Ashanti made part of the Gold Coast Colony. In 1900 the natives again rebelled, and 40,000 of them besieged Kumassi, which, however, was soon relieved and the rebellion stamped out. Accra (3920 miles from Liverpool) is the chief town. Palm oil is the principal export, and next come rubber, cocoa, and gold dust.

TOGOLAND.—Natives from the Gold Coast played their part during the Great War, mainly in the

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conquest of Togoland, which belonged to Germany, the Peace Treaty of 1919 enacting that France and Great Britain should make a joint recommendation to the League of Nations as to the future of Togoland. When hostilities broke out our Gold Coast Colony was in the hands of an Acting Governor, Mr W. C. F. Robertson, and the native regiment was under an acting commander, Lieut.-Colonel F. C. Bryant. Both men rose to the occasion in the most creditable way, and all the resources of the district were rapidly mobilized and arrangements made for French co-operation. The German colony was attacked on 12th August, 1914, and after two battles the German governor surrendered unconditionally.

It was the first German colony to fall, and the Germans must have deeply resented this early result of the sea-power of the Allies, since she regarded Togoland as her model colony, it being the only one that was self-supporting. Its chief products are rubber and oil fruits. Its area is 33,700 square miles, or, say, a trifle larger than that of Ireland. The colony, however, has a coast-line of but 32 miles.

NIGERIA.—Under this name are comprised two British protectorates—Northern and Southern Nigeria. Their combined area is about 230,000 square miles, and the total population is considered to be about 16,000,000. Southern Nigeria is bounded on the west by Lagos, on the north by Northern Nigeria, and on the east by the (late) German Cameroons. Its chief towns are Old Calabar (the capital), Benin, and Akassa. Northern Nigeria is bounded on the west by the French Dahomey, on the north by the French Sudan, and on the east by the (late) German Cameroons.

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Lagos, an old Crown colony, is now part of Southern Nigeria.

British interest in Nigeria dates from 1796, when Mungo Park investigated the River Niger. This great river, with its tributaries, drains the whole of this section of Africa, and it is the only waterway of any size into Central Africa. Its mouth forms a delta of swamps and streams, and for a long time the existence of a great river was unsuspected. Various single-handed efforts to explore the river were made—principally in search of ivory—but not until about 1870 were trading posts established upon it. In 1879 a United African Company was formed from the smaller companies then trading. In 1881 it became the National African Company, and in 1886 received a Royal Charter as the Royal Niger Company. The head of the company was Mr (afterward Sir) George Taubman Goldie—the Cecil Rhodes of Nigeria—and under his alert guidance a magnificent addition of territory was made to the Empire.

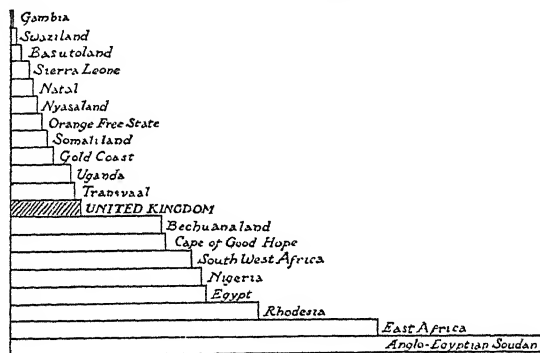


Sir George Taubman Goldie

As was the case at Sierra Leone, the vigorous support of the British Government to its traders in the Niger region was due to French activities in the hinterlands. Attempts by the Navy in 1841 and 1858 to establish a British protectorate had been foiled by the mortality among the forces employed. The gradual increase of the traders gave the Government a sure

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foundation on which to work. But while the establishing of authority and rule over the tribes of Southern Nigeria was accomplished with little trouble, the tribes of Northern Nigeria made peaceful expansion an impossibility. These tribes were slave dealers and they consequently obtained their human material for the



Principal British Possessions in Africa. Comparative areas with United Kingdom

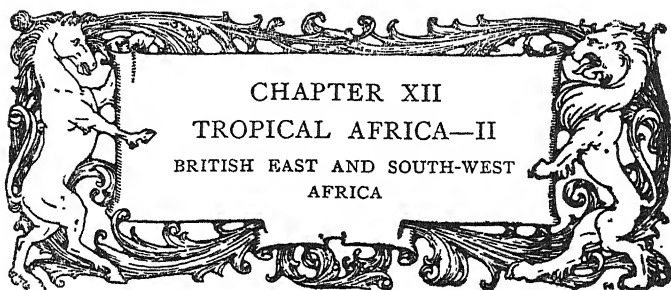
markets in the interior of Africa from the inhabitants of Northern Nigeria. The early success in the coast districts was largely due to the English promise to abolish slavery. This carried with it the necessity of stopping slave-dealing and raiding for slaves. Numerous punitive expeditions against offending tribes were required, and the difficulties in the way were numerous. The country was unknown, great forests barred the way to organized forces, and rivers and swamps impeded progress at almost every step. In 1877 a famous expedition against the state of Benin was undertaken by Sir George Goldie, with a staff of officers from the English Army. It was a punitive expedition in the

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truest sense of the word, for the King of Benin had massacred about 200—practically all—of an English mission, while his kingdom was infamous throughout the world for its human sacrifices and cannibalism. The expedition reached Benin after some fighting and great hardships, and due toll of life was exacted as a punishment for the wrongs inflicted.

But one expedition was not sufficient to tame the savage instincts of these northern tribes and convince them that peace must be kept. In 1902 and 1903 expeditions against the Fulbe state and against the Hausa tribes of the Central Sudan became necessary. And, with the memory of these expeditions still remaining, peace is now assured.

One of the outstanding results of British rule is the native army—formed from among our old enemies of Northern Nigeria. The force is over 5000 strong and is mainly drawn from the Hausa tribes. Of small stature but extremely sturdy, these Africans are magnificent soldiers under European leadership. They are trained largely as a sort of military police on the model of the Royal Irish Constabulary. The present peaceful condition of Nigeria is a tribute to their efficiency, and to the courage of those English administrators who have raised and trained them.



ON the east side of Africa is a great territory stretching from the borders of Egypt proper to Rhodesia on the south, and known as British East and Central Africa. It includes within its borders such great countries as Uganda and Nyassaland—countries with every possibility in them for European settlers.

The existence of three great river systems in Africa, all draining from about one central plateau, aroused European curiosity in the early part of last century. The Nile in the north, the Zambesi on the east, and the Congo on the west offered apparently easy modes of access to the remote interior. Explorers such as Livingstone, Speke, Grant, Baker, and others, sought to solve the mystery of the 'Dark Continent,' and on reaching the central plateau they found a series of great lakes, including the Victoria Nyanza, Tanganyika, and Nyassa, stretching southward from the headwaters of the Nile. No steps were taken by England, however, to secure to herself what her missionaries and explorers had investigated, except at Zanzibar and Mombasa. As usual, the work of development was left to private enterprise and—particularly in this part of the

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world—to the missionary. Zanzibar and the neighbouring Mombasa became the concern of the British Government only in pursuance of Britain's policy of putting an end to the slave trade wherever it was found.

It may be said that British Central Africa is the legacy of the missionaries to the Empire. The Nyassaland Protectorate—one-third the size of the British Isles—was opened up and developed by missionaries like Bishop Mackenzie of the Universities Mission, Dr Livingstone of the London Missionary Society, and Messrs Henderson and Duncan of the Scottish Mission, with its headquarters at Blantyre. This result was achieved between 1854 and 1880. An attempt was made to create a trading company on missionary principles by the formation of an African Lakes Company. In 1888 another trading concern, the British East Africa Company, was founded by William Mackinnon, a merchant of Zanzibar, for the purpose of trading with the native tribes in the hinterland of Mombasa. He leased from the Sultan of Zanzibar a few miles of territory on the mainland, and attempted, with some success, to develop the interior.

From these small beginnings has come a great addition to the Empire. In East Africa, extending to the north, there are four British protectorates—Zanzibar,



Dr Livingstone

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East Africa, Uganda, and British Somaliland. Between them they have an area of 450,000 square miles—four times the size of the British Isles—and a native population of about 8,000,000. And just north of Uganda stretches the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan—a country about eight times larger than the United Kingdom.

ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN. — This vast area of country has been incorporated in the Empire only since 1882. In that year England became predominant in Egypt, and it became necessary for her as time went on to secure for that country the upper waters of the Nile—on which Egypt wholly depends for its existence—and the territory through which it runs. The Anglo-Egyptian Sudan had long been left to the mercies of native rulers. Attempts had been made at various times to give some sort of European control to the region. From 1869 to 1873 Sir Samuel Baker attempted—on behalf of the Khedive of Egypt—from Fashoda “to suppress the slave hunters of Central Africa, to annex the countries constituting the Nile Basin, and to open up the savage regions to legitimate commerce and a permanent government.” He was succeeded by Colonel (afterward General) Gordon, and from 1874 to 1879 Gordon managed to suppress the slave trade and establish comparative order. After his five years’ work he retired from the difficult post, and the Egyptian administration soon fell to pieces.

Things went on in a muddled and unsatisfactory way until the year 1881, when a native of Dongola proclaimed himself a Mahdi or ruler. He rallied round him all the warring tribes of the Southern Sudan, and, under the cloak of a religious revival, attempted to set up a kingdom for himself. Two years later (in 1883)

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General Hicks—known as Hicks Pasha—attempted to cow the Sudanese with an army of Egyptian troops, but his force was cut to pieces, after which the whole of the country lay open to the fanatical Mahdi and his followers.

In January of the following year (1884) General Gordon, who had previously been so successful in the district, was again sent out, and he made Khartum his headquarters. Some months later the neighbouring savage tribes rose and besieged the place. Gordon and his brave followers were unable to escape, and before a relief force could reach the town the whole party of defenders was killed. Gordon was, and will always be, a national hero. From the hour when his death became known—in January 1885—the minds



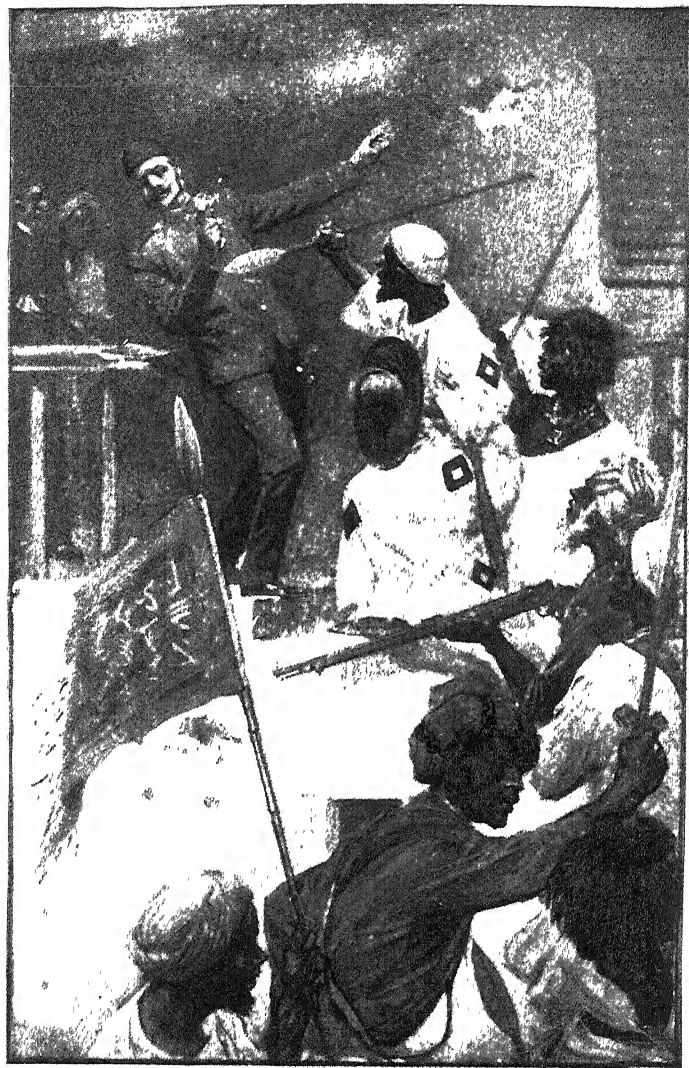
General Gordon

of all Britons were set on avenging it. Slowly but surely an efficient Egyptian army was built up under the fostering care of Lord Cromer, the British Agent in Egypt, and the guidance of soldiers like Lord Kitchener, Sir Reginald Wingate, Colonels Hunter and Parsons. The result was that in the month of September 1898, and within sight of the walls of Khartum, where Gordon had been slain thirteen years before, the power of the Mahdi and his followers was broken for ever by an Egyptian army supported by British regiments. So came the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan into being.

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In the year 1898 the famous Fashoda affair caused considerable excitement, and war with France was narrowly averted. Three years earlier the British Government had informed the world in general, and France in particular, that the Nile Valley was within the British sphere of influence. In 1898, however, Lord Kitchener, who was then in charge of the district, was informed that a place named Fashoda (or Kodok) was occupied by white soldiers. Knowing they were not British, Lord Kitchener went to the town, and there found the French tricolour flying, and a force under Captain Marchand in possession. Marchand was courteously but firmly asked to withdraw, but declined to do so. Kitchener thereupon disposed British troops so as to surround the French. Fortunately the guns did not go off, and it was left to the Home Governments to settle the matter. For a time there was considerable anxiety, but on 5th November the French Government announced that they had instructed the French force to withdraw. The unfortunate incident was brought to a close by an agreement signed on 21st March, 1899, whereby France withdrew from the Nile Valley, and a new boundary between the British and French spheres was defined. The history of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan since 1899 is merged in that of Egypt, which it adjoins.

The Sudan chiefs and natives were most loyal to the British Empire during the Great War, and were ready to defend Egypt when the Turks threatened to invade it. Indeed, on 22nd July, 1919, shortly after the Peace Treaty was signed, ten representative sons of the Prophet and sheikhs of the Sudan came to London in order personally to congratulate the King.



The Death of Gordon

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BRITISH SOMALILAND.—The 'Eastern Horn of Africa,' which projects into the Gulf of Aden, is occupied by Somali tribes, and is accordingly known as Somaliland. The country has been divided into spheres of influence—not protectorates—by Great Britain, France, and Italy. The part known as British Somaliland faces Aden across the Gulf, and its importance arises from the fact that while we hold it the valuable post of Aden is free from menace by opposing nations.

It was in 1884-85, about the time of the death of General Gordon, that the British went to Somaliland to counter the influence of France and Italy, who had taken parts of the country. Possession was taken of a stretch of coast-line, an act that compelled us to go farther inland and put down the disorder following on this seizure of territory. It turned out to be a greater task than was expected, for a formidable opponent appeared in the person of Sayyid Mohammed, better known to history as the Mad Mullah. He was a robber fanatic, with a very large following of discontented Somalis.

Sayyid Mohammed, who commenced life as a gardener, lived a roving and gipsy sort of life in the desert, his followers ravaging and killing as they pleased. They thought the law and order of the British to be superfluous, and in the year 1898 came the first conflict. In 1901 a force of British and Indian troops was sent against the 'Mad Mullah,' and for nearly four years a war was carried on over these desert wastes. The enemy knew the country well, and daring raids on his part were frequent. In 1905 the conflict ended; the Somalis settled down to British rule, and the 'Mad Mullah' was given the rank of native ruler over a part of the country.

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In the early days of English rule the territory was administered by the Indian Government, but in 1905, when peace had been restored, the country was placed under the Colonial Office in London as a Crown colony.

ZANZIBAR.—This was the first protectorate to be established by the British on the east coast of Africa, and was so established as a necessary act in our efforts to suppress the slave trade. The island of Zanzibar, thirty miles off the African mainland, and the port of Mombasa, on the mainland north of Zanzibar, were up to quite recent times centres of the slave trade. As early as 1847 England had interfered by prohibiting slavery on this coast, and in 1873, under the guidance of a great Colonial administrator, Sir Bartle Frere, the slave trade of Zanzibar was ended, and the Sultan made a vassal of England.

In 1890, when Germany was seeking to acquire a colonial empire, her attention became fixed on the east coast of Africa, and she managed to acquire a fine stretch of country facing Zanzibar. The island was a desirable place also, and although English interests were predominant, Germany ventured on claiming rights to it. The answer was to establish British protection, but as compensation Germany received the island of Heligoland in the North Sea. The value of the bargain to Germany was demonstrated during later years, and especially during the course of the Great War of 1914-18.

Recent sultans of Zanzibar have been lovers of Britain, and on 15th December, 1918, died a notable ex-sultan who succeeded his father in 1902, when he was a boy of seventeen, but abdicated nine years later in

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favour of his eldest son, then five years of age. "It is entirely due to considerations of health," he said, "as I have to be away undergoing treatment in Europe for six months every year." He was educated at Harrow and Oxford, and spoke English perfectly. He was a good sportsman, playing racquets, football, and tennis, and was fond of motoring. His state yielded him an income of £7000 a year when he was the sultan, and he had other sources of wealth which made him a rich man. One of his hobbies was the collection of clocks, of which he had a great number.

"My upbringing at an English public school and university has, I am afraid, unfitted me for the monotony of an Oriental sovereign's life," he confessed, just before resigning his throne.

The island of Pemba, north of Zanzibar, ruled over by a sultan, is included in the protectorate of Zanzibar.

NYASSALAND PROTECTORATE.—A principal effect of the abolition of slavery in and around Zanzibar and Mombasa, and the coast-line in general, was to drive the trade inland. The coast-line for centuries had been in the hands of Arabs from Arabia—as we have seen, Zanzibar was for many years considered a tributary state to the Sultan of Muscat. Foiled at Zanzibar and Mombasa, the Arabs endeavoured to establish slave markets at centres like Tabara in German East Africa, Ujiji on Lake Tanganyika, Nyangwe on the River Congo, and on Lake Nyassa.

Lake Nyassa forms the main boundary of Nyassaland to the east. As we have seen, Nyassaland was occupied by a missionary trading concern called the African Lakes Company, and it was on this company that the

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work of crushing these Arab slavers mainly fell. Its efforts were directed and seconded by a famous band of volunteers. Men like Mr M. Fotheringham, the Moir brothers, Captain (afterward Sir Frederick) Lugard (the founder of British power in British East Africa and Uganda, and later Governor of Nigeria), and



Sir Harry Johnston

Mr A. Sharpe faced the difficult task cheerfully and with fair success. Finally another great colonist, Sir Harry Johnston, in 1895-96 put an end once for all to the existence of a slave mart in Nyassaland by a crushing defeat of the slavers, which involved the death of their leaders.

In 1890 the boundaries between Nyassaland and that known until 1919 as German East Africa were settled by a Convention. In 1891 the boundary between Nyassaland and Portuguese East Africa was delimited, and the Protectorate was established in that year. Much of the colony is worked by the British South Africa Company—the company holding Rhodesia.

Owing to the nearness of Nyassaland to German territory it was, as one might expect, the scene of much trouble during the Great War, particularly in 1915, when one of the native chiefs—Chilembwe—headed a rebellion. The story of the rising, and of how Mombasa was saved, is well told by a Central News correspondent, who on 28th December (1915) wrote as follows :

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“ British East Africa and Nyassaland owe a deep debt of gratitude to the Mohammedan battalions of the King's African Rifles, in which, despite all the efforts of German sedition mongers, there was not a single case of treason.

“ Chilembwe rose at the bidding of the Germans in Nyassaland. In one of the sudden raids typical of South Africa's past history, he and his followers swooped down on the farms of isolated settlers, decapitated the oldest settler and two members of his European staff, rushed a large store from which they looted arms and ammunition, and then began to sweep the country.

“ The sparse white population was dismayed, but determined. From Blantyre and Zomba motor cyclists and ‘ push ’ cyclists and horsemen rode hundreds of miles to outlying settlements and succeeded in bringing in every woman and child. The manager of the railways, single-handed, worked a motor trolley, picked up families and brought them to one of the three laagers which had been formed. Undaunted by danger, these men worked day and night, and not a woman or child was left to the mercy of the savages.

“ It was a small band of Askari that tracked the rebel chief through the bush to his improvised lair and shot him dead.

“ Again, at the battle of Gaza, when Colonel Hawthorne and the other European officers were all either killed or wounded, Colour-Sergeant Sumani, of the 2nd King's African Rifles, a Mohammedan Askari, ordered his men to fix bayonets and charge the enemy through the thick bush, completely dislodging them and capturing a modern quick-firing gun with a large quantity of

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ammunition. Sumani was awarded the Distinguished Conduct Medal, for if Gaza had fallen that day Mombasa, which is only sixteen miles distant, could hardly have been saved.

“The German agents who, by specious promises, persuaded Chilembwe to undertake his fatal rebellion, worked great mischief in the heart of German East Africa among the Riga Ruga, the descendants of the Arab slave traders. The natives were promised that, under German rule, they were to have undisputed sway over a big slice of Nyassaland and British East Africa, and pamphlets in their own language were circulated telling them that east and west, north and south, the British had been defeated.”

BRITISH EAST AFRICA.—This protectorate reaches from the Indian Ocean almost to Uganda. The Portuguese, in the fifteenth century, were the first settlers. They erected forts at Mombasa, and made it a calling place for their ships on the way to India. The Arabs from Zanzibar drove out the Portuguese at a later date, and retained it almost to the close of last century. The coast-line has always been associated with the island of Zanzibar opposite, and was long under the control of the Sultan of the latter country. In 1884 Germany, in her bid for colonial empire, secured a footing in Zanzibar, and it was then that England remembered an offer the Sultan had once made (in 1879) of some of the coast-line about Mombasa, an offer which was refused. The times had altered considerably in the five years, and England lost no time in accepting the offer—after Germany had made her move. It was then that a chartered company, called the British East Africa Company, was formed by Mr Mackinnon,

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as previously mentioned. The Company was taken over by the British Government, and on 18th June, 1895, a British protectorate was established and the country placed under the control of the Colonial Office. The first business the Government undertook was the construction of a railway to Uganda. The development of British East Africa and the Uganda protectorates has only been made possible by the existence of this railway, which is about 600 miles in length. It was made in 1896-1902, and reaches from Mombasa on the coast to Port Florence on the north-east shore of the Victoria Nyanza.

The story of the building of this famous railway is most romantic. Not only does it run through wild jungle, traverse lofty viaducts thrown across deep gorges, and climb mountain passes to the height of 8300 feet, but, in its early days, it received far too many unwelcome attentions from the natives. It was found that coils of telegraph wire were quite the rage with the women, while the men stole bolts and nuts for use as weapons. The builders of the railway, however, had to contend with other difficulties besides natural obstacles and the curiosity and hostility of the natives. When the railway reached one point, Tsavo, work was held up for weeks by the depredations of two man-eating lions, whose almost incredible boldness and cunning caused a reign of terror among the workmen and resulted in many casualties. Their exploits caused questions to be asked in Parliament, but eventually the lions were shot, after which the workmen slept and worked more comfortably.

EAST AFRICA.—South of the colony just described lies a recently made extension, known before and

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during the Great War as German East Africa, which was added to the Empire under the terms of the Peace Treaty of 1919. The entire German colony had an area of about 385,000 square miles—about three and a quarter times the size of the United Kingdom, and a coast-line of 620 miles. The boundaries were settled



General Smuts

by Germany in 1885, and five years later, in consideration of an indemnity of £200,000, the Sultan of Zanzibar, whose property it was, waived all his rights over the mainland, and the very small island of Mafia, off the coast, in favour of Germany.

On 20th September, 1914, when the war had been in progress only a few weeks, a British warship—the *Pegasus*—was surprised and disabled off the coast of Zanzibar by the German cruiser *Königsberg*, an enemy warship which was afterward blockaded in the mouth of the River Rufigi, where it was destroyed in July of the year following.

The conquest of German East Africa was a long and arduous task, the physical conditions rendering the campaign extraordinarily difficult. General Smuts, the famous South African general, laid the foundations of victory, and another Boer general—Van Deventer—completed the work. British, Indian and South African troops were engaged in the operations, which were all the more successful because of the hearty co-operation

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of our Belgian allies. The seat of the German Government, Dar-es-salaam, which is also the principal port, was captured by General Smuts on 4th September, 1916.

With the surrender of the German force in East Africa is associated an airship adventure of some importance. A Zeppelin started from Jamboli, in Bulgaria, with supplies, but when it had proceeded beyond Khartum in the Sudan it was recalled by wireless telegraphy because of the surrender of the last German forces in the field. The airship on this occasion covered a distance of 4800 miles without a halt, and was aloft for 106 hours.

The surface of the colony is low and flat along the whole of the coast, rising gradually to a series of plateaux, culminating in high isolated mountains. The principal exports are rubber, gums, ivory, and various grains.

During the German occupation the colony had been a source of great expense to its owners. Certainly Germany was developing the country and had built a number of good roads, even through the most barren parts, and a few years hence the colony might have paid its way, as its natural resources are great. The Germans state that they expended nearly £2,000,000 annually on the colony, and very little was got in return. The loss of this dependency was a very hard blow to our enemy, for great things were expected from its development.

Subsequent to the Peace Treaty an agreement was arrived at between Britain and Belgium whereby Britain ceded to Belgium a substantial portion of the conquest in return for a portion of the Belgian Congo in the region of Lake Tanganyika. This cession was extremely valuable to Britain, as it assures the

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continuance in that part of the continent of the Cape-to-Cairo Railway.

UGANDA.—Immediately to the south of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan lies Uganda. This great and fertile protectorate was first explored by Captain J. H. Speke, about 1860. But although serious missionary work



Sir H. M. Stanley

had been attempted for many years, in which Bishop Hannington played a prominent part and lost his life, it was not until the eighties of last century that the country was taken under the British flag. The real history—at any rate the modern history—of Uganda dates from 1876, when the explorer Stanley went there. Sir H. M. Stanley laid the foundations of British influence in the country and was invited to bring English

missionaries. In 1884 King Mutesa died, and his son, Mwanga, who proved a cruel and weak ruler, was placed on the throne. He very soon developed a great dislike to outsiders, and sought to close his country to all but his followers, and it was at this time that Bishop Hannington and hundreds of Christian converts were murdered by his orders.

About this time European countries, notably Great Britain, Italy, and Germany, began to turn their attention to the commercial value of Uganda, and in 1888, as already mentioned, the British East Africa Trading Company was established to trade in

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these regions. In 1890 Germany gave up her interest in Uganda to Great Britain, and the real maker of the country appeared on the scene in the person of Captain (afterward Sir) Frederick Lugard. Captain Lugard found it necessary to fight many battles, but his indomitable spirit triumphed over difficulties of all kinds, and before he left the country, in September 1892, peace was restored, the Union Jack acknowledged by the natives, and the control of the British trading company established.

King Mwanga was friendly for a few years. He agreed to all sorts of things that were suggested by the British—freedom for missionaries, abolition of slavery, free commerce, etc.—in the most obliging way.



Sir Frederick Lugard

He even went so far as to send a letter of thanks to Queen Victoria for her kindness in sending officials and soldiers to restore and keep order in the country. He asked that Captain Lugard might remain in order to do even more useful work, and concluded his letter as follows—"So, our friend, persevere in keeping us, for we are your people. May God give you blessing and long life." Very shortly afterward, in 1897, the king was in active rebellion, and it needed a strongly armed force to subdue him and expel him from the country.

The British trading company that had been established was unable to continue its useful work because of

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financial difficulties, and in March 1895, in exchange for the payment of £250,000, made over to the British Government its charter, property, and all its rights. A year later the Uganda protectorate came into being. Since that time the development of the country has proceeded peacefully.

SOUTH-WEST AFRICA, known from the date of the German occupation (1884) to the signing of the Peace Treaty after the Great War (June 1919) as German South-west Africa, has an area of 322,450 square miles, or ten times that of Ireland. It extends approximately from the Orange River mouth to Portuguese West Africa, along the west coast of the continent, and about 250 miles inland.

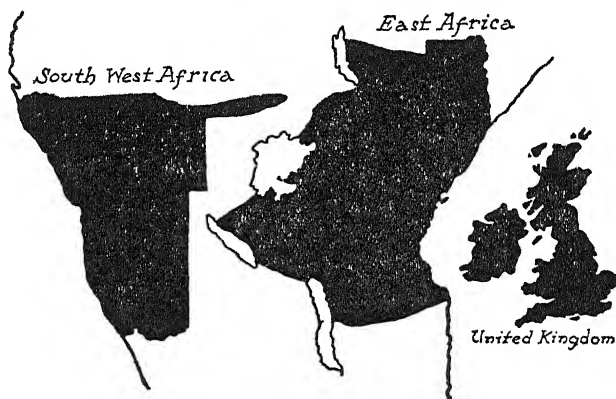
The history of the colony is a most interesting one, dating further back than that of most of the other African colonies. To this day there is on one of the hills a huge cross of steel, a replica of the cross erected by Bartholomew Diaz in 1486, when he first landed, the original cross having, it is said, been taken by the Germans to Berlin. The hill whereon the cross stands was known until 1908 as Diaz Point, but since the discovery of diamonds at this spot the hill has been known as Diamond Hill.

From the time of its first sighting by the Portuguese explorer above named the bay behind the Point—called, until the time of the German occupation, Angra Pequena—remained a port of call for a few trading vessels travelling to and from the Dutch East Indies, and especially so after the settlement of the Dutch East India Company had been established at the Cape of Good Hope. From time to time, and more particularly during the early part of the nineteenth century,

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whalers also made use of this part of the coast, but the inhospitable nature of the country discouraged visitors from attempting to penetrate into it or even settling near the harbour itself.

About the year 1880 the country was taken possession of by the British and the Government of Cape Colony, but in 1884, by agreement between the home and



Comparisons with the United Kingdom

colonial Governments, the district, save for a very small portion, was abandoned, when it was immediately seized by Germany. It was given up by the British, chiefly because it seemed wholly unproductive, utterly barren, and without any promise for the future. The Germans, however, found that, once the forbidding outer defences were passed, the country lent itself to many forms of activity, and owing to its magnificent climate could support a large white population. The small portion not given up was Walfisch Bay, the only natural harbour between Angola and the Orange River. The land possession consisted of a peninsula and a

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stretch of sandy territory, covering an area of some 430 square miles (nearly double the size of the Isle of Man). Cape Colony had the control of it from 1884, the mandate of the whole of South-west Africa being now held by the Union of South Africa.

To General Louis Botha and his South African troops must be given the credit of winning this new colony. The campaign was one of the most brilliant of the overseas operations during the Great War, and it was carried out by the military forces of the Union of South Africa without the assistance of troops from the homeland. Large quantities of arms and ammunition were sent out by the enemy in 1914 to South-west Africa, and about 10,000 white troops and farmer reservists were concentrated there for the purpose of invading Cape Colony adjoining, but the great scheme of the enemy failed, thanks to General Botha and the British fleet.

It was a tremendous task that Botha undertook, and its difficulties have hardly been realized. It was not a difficult matter for the Union troops to occupy Luderitz Bay (19th September, 1914) or Swakopmund, the harbour on which Germany had spent so much money (16th January, 1915). The difficulties were met with inland, where in many places every drop of water for the expeditionary force had to be conveyed in tanks, because the enemy poisoned the wells with sheep-dip.

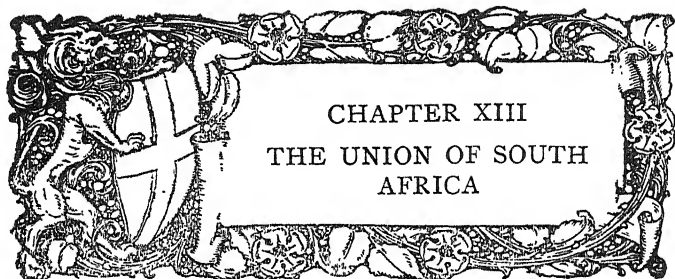
The forces advanced in two directions. Sir D. Mackenzie advanced from Cape Colony with one army, which took Warmbad and the Keetmanshoop, while General Botha with the main force, after landing at Swakopmund, marched to Karibib, and on 12th May, 1915, occupied Windhoek, the capital. The Germans retreated north, destroying the railway as they went,

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and laying mines in places where it was hoped they would be exploded by the Union troops digging for water. Fortunately the force was composed of men who were prepared for all kinds of enemy wiles, and in spite of great difficulties they pressed on.

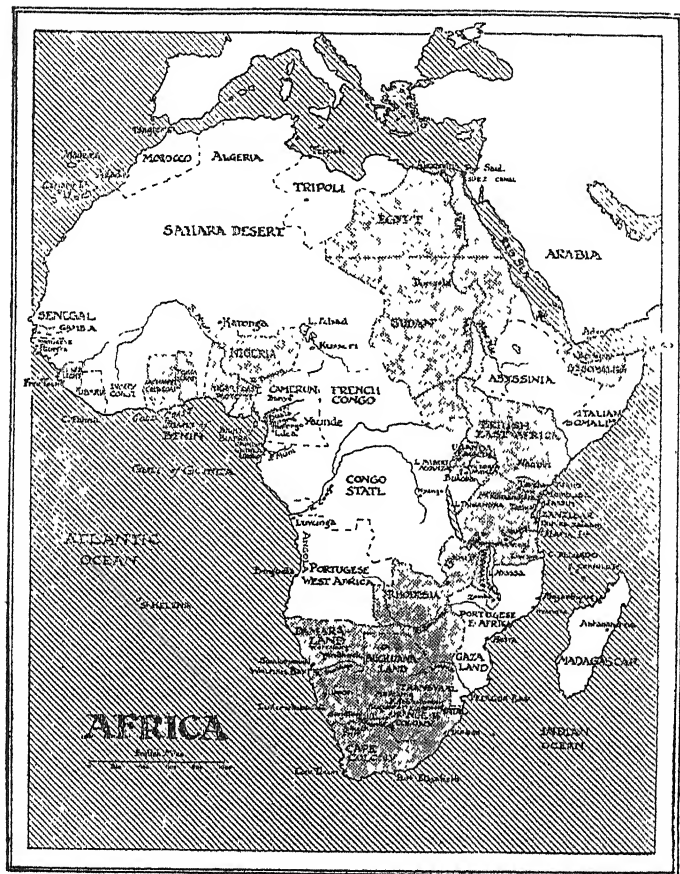
On 1st July Otavi was occupied, and eight days later the following item of news, sent out by the Governor-General of the Union of South Africa, appeared in the newspapers :

“ This morning, July 9, at 2 A.M., General Botha accepted Governor Seitz's surrender of all the German forces in South-west Africa. Hostilities have ceased, and the campaign has thus been brought to a successful conclusion.”



TAKEN as a whole, Africa is the perquisite of Europe. The history of Africa is a record of its parcelling out, and of the reshuffling of the 'lots' among the European nations. It would be difficult now to find a single square mile of habitable land that is not in the occupation or under the protection of one or other of the nations of Europe. England, France, Italy, Portugal, Belgium, and Germany now own, or have owned or protected, vast areas of African soil, and the area controlled by England is easily the largest. Africa has a total area of 12,000,000 square miles; the area under English rule or jurisdiction amounts to, approximately, 3,000,000 square miles.

Until the narrow neck of land joining Africa and Asia was pierced by de Lesseps, and the Suez Canal constructed, the route to the East—to India and China—lay, as we have learned from an earlier chapter, round Africa. As a consequence the west coast of Africa, from Morocco to the Cape of Good Hope, was the first section to be explored and developed. In 1486 the Portuguese explorer Diaz sailed south as far as the Cape of Good Hope, and eleven years later Vasco da Gama



The shaded areas represent British territory

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rounded the Cape and reached India. Sailing vessels require ports of call, where they can obtain fresh water and provisions. Table Bay (on which Cape Town now stands, a few miles from the actual Cape of Good Hope), being a natural harbour, came quite early into use for this purpose.

The Dutch acquired great possessions in the East, and we have seen in earlier chapters how they controlled parts of India, Ceylon, Sumatra, Java, and other places. It came naturally, therefore, that about 1652 a Dutch company, concerned with these places, took possession of the neighbourhood of Table Bay, built a fort and made arrangements for supplying ships with water, fresh meat, and vegetables. Thus commenced a Dutch South Africa.

Drake, during one of his voyages round the world, was the first Englishman to see the Cape, but he did not land on the African coast, and it was not until July 1591 that the English flag was seen there. In that month three British merchantmen called on their way to India, the reason of their call being sickness on board, owing to food running short. All three ships left, after buying sheep and oxen.

CAPE COLONY.—The Dutch settlers continued to develop the land for over two hundred years, and founded a large colony there. This brings us to the year 1795, to the beginning of the French wars which were to revolutionize the colonial holdings of the European nations. Within the next twenty years England was to gain Canada, finally lose the United States, consolidate her position in India, and gain a foothold in the south of Africa by the capture of the Dutch colony. In 1795 a British fleet under Admiral Elphinstone,

THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

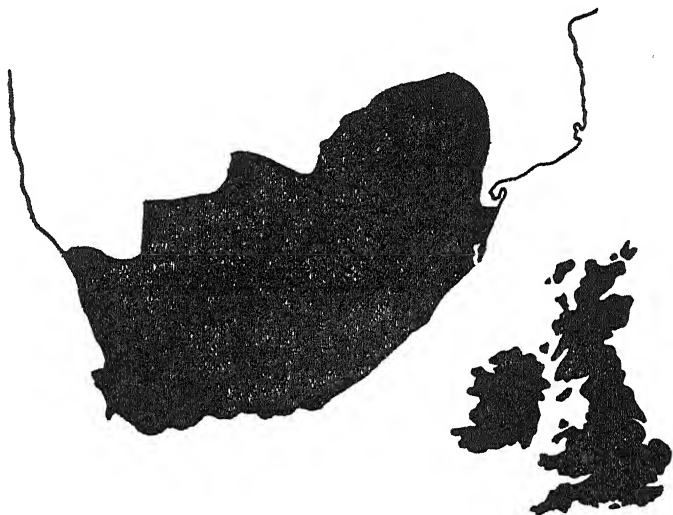
conveying a small army of 3000 men under General Craig, appeared before Cape Town, and the place surrendered almost immediately.

It is interesting to take a glance backward, in order to see what Cape Town was like at that time. A geography book of the period tells us that the Portuguese Diaz gave to the Cape the name 'Cape of the Tempests,' because of the many storms he met with off the coast, but when Diaz returned to Portugal with the news of his great discovery, the King (Emmanuel) changed it to the 'Cape of Good Hope.' After dealing fully with the early history of the district, the account proceeds: "The climate is favourable, spring commences in October, summer in January, autumn in April, and winter in July. The soil is good, and produces abundance of corn beyond the mountains. The country is much infested with beasts of prey, as lions, tigers, leopards, wolves, etc. Game is plentiful, and the number of antelopes and deer prodigious. Among other species of animals are the elephant, elk, rhinoceros, buffalo, giraffe, etc."

At the conclusion of the first peace, in 1803, the colony was handed back to the Dutch, the latter in return giving up all their rights to Ceylon. War broke out again three months after the first declaration of peace, and on 4th January, 1806, 63 British ships, with 7000 soldiers on board, arrived off Table Bay. The expedition was under the command of General Baird, the Dutch garrison being commanded by General Jansen. The Dutch army, it should in fairness be said, was a strange mixture of mercenary Germans, Hottentots, Malays, and Boers, with the crews of two wrecked French ships, and numbered about 2000 in all.

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The British force landed at a spot twelve miles from Cape Town. The armies met and a fierce battle began, known to history as the battle of Blueberg. Eventually, thanks to the brilliant charge of three Scottish



British South African Territories compared with the United Kingdom

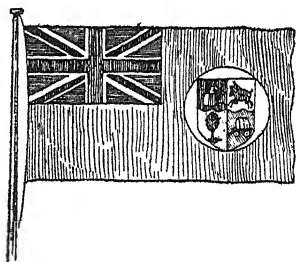
regiments, the Dutch general was compelled to fall back on Cape Town.

General Baird continued his march on the town, and on reaching it a man carrying a flag of truce was met. He had come from the Dutch general with a request for a suspension of the fighting, in order to arrange terms of capitulation. The request was granted. On the following day certain agreements were made and signed, and on 6th March, 1806, a fleet of seven ships left the port, carrying home the Dutch soldiers,

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Government officials, and others who wanted to go. From that day Cape Colony has belonged to the British.

There were at the time of the British occupation very few English people at the Cape, but the new colony was considered by the English Government to be an ideal place for settlers, and special efforts were made to colonize it. Parliament granted £50,000 to defray the cost of sending out a large party of settlers, and nearly 90,000 persons applied for passages. A selection of 5000 had to be made. Each man who went had one hundred acres of land given to him, and the 5000 who were selected settled in the colony between March, 1820, and May, 1821. About one-eighth of the white people were now English-speaking, and four years later English became the official language.



Flag of the Union

This capture and colonization of the Cape by the English was to have its sequel nearly one hundred years later. Many of the original Dutch inhabitants were dispossessed of their land by the conquest. Others had no desire to live under British rule. To use a common Dutch word, a great 'trek' northward of nearly 16,000 people, to escape the English Flag, followed the British colonization. These trekkers founded what in later years came to be called the Transvaal and Orange Free State.

TRANSVAAL AND ORANGE FREE STATE.—In 1849 the Dutch built the town of Lydenburg, which they made their capital, and they named the district the Dutch

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African Republic. Six years afterward they changed the name to the South African Republic. Things went well with them until 1877, two years before the Zulu War, when, in consequence of financial difficulties and Zulu disturbances, the district was annexed by the British Government at the request of the settlers.

By this time the population had grown considerably. British and German farmers had joined the Dutch, and it was due largely to the influence of the two former that British protection was asked for and obtained, the name of the district being changed to the Transvaal. The proclamation declaring the country a British possession was issued on 12th April, 1877.

The Dutch portion of the population was very much annoyed at the loss of its independence, and two of its leaders, Paul Kruger and Dr Jorissen, came to London to ask, unsuccessfully, for the withdrawal of British soldiers and Government officials. The Dutch then got up a petition, which was brought to England by Paul Kruger, who on this second visit was accompanied by Piet Joubert, but the deputation had to return disappointed, with the news that under no circumstances would the British flag be withdrawn from the Transvaal. This marked the beginning of the long series of troubles that culminated in the great South African War of 1899-1902.

The first British governor was Sir Theophilus Shepstone, who did much to reconcile the Boers to British rule. He was, however, succeeded in March 1879 by Sir Owen Lanyon, who did not get on at all well with the Boers. The Dutch became more dissatisfied with British government, and, having been relieved from their fear of the Zulus, they made up their minds to try

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whether fighting would do what peaceful deputations had failed to accomplish. They therefore armed themselves, and on 16th December, 1880, hoisted the flag of the Republic at Heidelberg, which they decided should be the capital until they could drive the British officials from Pretoria. On the same day the war began, and disaster after disaster attended the British, who had not expected such an uprising.

The crowning disaster was Majuba—really a very small fight, but one which made a great impression in England. During the night of 26th February, 1881, 600 British, led by General Colley, took up a strong position on Majuba Hill, from which place he hoped to reach and attack the enemy 2000 feet below, in the morning. The Boers, however, saw him, and realizing their danger they crept stealthily up the steep slope under shelter of the hill-side to the top of the hill, thus placing the British between two fires. Colley was in a hopeless position, and the British loss that day was 92 killed, 134 wounded, and 59 prisoners, against 1 killed and 5 wounded on the farmers' side, Colley himself being among the slain. Sir Evelyn Wood then took command, more troops were sent out, and very soon an army of 12,000 men was ready to take action, but at the last moment orders not to proceed were received from the British Government. The British soldiers withdrew, and the Boers were left in possession, and thenceforth maintained an independent government subject to the suzerainty of the English Crown. In other words, Britain reserved the right of veto over treaties with foreign powers.

The Boers were a farming community and lived by the cultivation of the soil ; they wished to live their

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quiet, pastoral life, untouched, as far as possible, by the changes of the busy outside world.

In 1883 Kruger was elected President of the Republic. He was a stern, strong-willed lover of his country and people, but, like most of his compatriots, he had no breadth of intellect and did not appreciate the impossi-

bility of holding back the tide of advancing civilization. Thus when gold was discovered in the Boer territory in 1886 he was far from pleased. As he anticipated, the discovery soon brought crowds of adventurers and prospectors from Europe and America, and the prosperous town of Johannesburg grew up in the centre of the mining district.



President Kruger

The new-comers, called 'Uitlanders' by the Boers, were treated with scant respect by the farmers, who disliked their occupations and manner of living. Soon the irreconcilable points of view led to harsh and unfavourable opinions, and it is impossible to withhold sympathy from a primitive people who wanted simply to be left alone, and who found at every move that a despised 'civilization,' advancing, trod upon its heels.

The Uitlanders had many just grievances against Kruger's conservative rule. They had been permitted to acquire land and they paid enormous sums in taxes, but they had no share in the administration, and felt that they were being unfairly 'bled.' They could not sit on juries, nor were they allowed the ordinary privileges of citizens in the state in which they had elected to make their homes. The Boers had adopted a policy



Jameson's Last Stand : Battle of Doornkop

R Caton Woodville

By permission of Messrs Henry Graves & Co

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of repression which could not but be bitterly resented by men who had been nurtured in the free atmosphere of Great Britain.

A reform party was organized in Johannesburg, and obtained the warm sympathy of Cecil Rhodes, who intervened with Kruger, only to find him obdurate. The Boers did not want the Uitlanders, and were determined not to concede anything to their wishes.

The situation rapidly approached a crisis, and a rupture sooner or later became inevitable. Among those who felt keenly the unfortunate position of the Uitlanders was Dr Jameson.



Dr Jameson

The name of Sir Leander Starr Jameson, or 'Dr Jim,' as he was familiarly known throughout the Empire, is writ large in the list of Empire builders who have laboured in Africa. He was the son of an Edinburgh lawyer, in which city he was born in 1853, but little was heard of him until he became physician to Mr Rhodes, at which period he was appointed Administrator of Rhodesia.

On the 29th of December, 1895, England had one of the greatest thrills it had experienced in its history, when the startling news came that Jameson had crossed the frontier with nearly 500 men, including several officers of the British Army, on an armed raid into the Transvaal.

Mr Chamberlain, the British Colonial Secretary, cabled at once to the local authorities that the raid must be stopped, and undoubtedly the rash move must have caused great anxiety to those responsible for the peace

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of the Empire, and must have increased the difficulty of obtaining fair treatment for the oppressed Uitlanders.

Meantime the reform party in Johannesburg had been secretly arming, but at the end of December dissensions arose, and Dr Jameson was urged not to move.

His raid, therefore, was as ill-timed as it was unfortunate, and without assistance from within the country it was foredoomed to failure. Three days after starting, when within touch of Johannesburg, his force was rounded up by a strong commando of Boers under Cronje, and after a stiff fight was compelled to surrender. The German Emperor cabled a message of congratulation to President Kruger, a step which was deeply resented in England. Cecil Rhodes declared that Jameson had 'upset his apple-cart.'

Jameson and his officers were handed over to the British authorities for trial in London, and were sentenced to terms of imprisonment. A similar fate befell certain of the reform leaders in Johannesburg.

Eight years after the raid 'Dr Jim' became Prime Minister of Cape Colony, and during his four years of office helped to lay the foundations of the new Union of South Africa. He possessed a strong personality, although he was a man of much reserve; he dominated without domineering.

In 1910 'Dr Jim' himself said of the raid: "It was a foolish blunder. It did far more harm than good, and everyone who was punished for it thoroughly deserved it; but what I do say is, with all its foolishness and blundering, the motive was a good motive. It was to replace a corrupt Government, not to replace Dutchmen by Englishmen."

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Dr Jameson died on 26th November, 1917, having lived to see the union of Boers and British in the common menace of Germany's insane lust for world-power.

After the Jameson Raid affairs in the Transvaal rapidly headed for war, notwithstanding the efforts of British statesmen to obtain concessions for the Uitlanders which would ease the tense situation, and on 11th October, 1899, the crash came, the Orange Free State being also involved as an ally of the Transvaal.

The Boers had been secretly preparing for a considerable time, and on the outbreak of war they had 20,000 capable riflemen ready for immediate action under some excellent leaders, chief of whom were Joubert, the Commander-in-Chief, Cronje, Christian de Wet, and Botha. Their first move was to attack Natal, which they expected to overrun. They were, however, delayed by their unsuccessful siege operations at Ladysmith, and the Colony was saved.

Reinforcements commenced to flow from England, and strong contingents were furnished by the Colonies. The Empire awoke to the fact that our resources would be taxed to see the business through, but this was not realized until defeat after defeat had been inflicted upon British armies by the Boers, who fought in a manner that surprised our tacticians and strategists, whose preconceived notions of warfare had been formed under very different conditions. It was the first war with a white race which had been fought by Britain since the Crimea, and so little were the conditions understood that the War Office informed the Colonies that unmounted men were preferred. This to deal with fighting forces of the most elusive character, whose

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genius as combatants was entirely of the guerrilla order !

But although the Boers proved themselves to be superior in the open field, they were unsuccessful in their efforts to take fortified towns, such as Mafeking and Kimberley, the defence of which was watched with bated breath by the Empire.



Lord Roberts

In December 1899 Lord Roberts was sent out to assume supreme command, with Lord Kitchener as Chief of Staff, and within three months Kimberley was saved. A fortnight later the investing troops were rounded up, and Cronje surrendered with 4000 of his men. This took place on the anniversary of Majuba, and marked the turning-point of the war. The relief of Ladysmith immediately followed, and on 17th May Mafeking, the gallant outpost of the Empire, after a seven months' siege which rendered its defender, Colonel Baden-Powell, ever famous, was also relieved. On 5th June Lord Roberts marched into Pretoria and the war was virtually over. The Commander-in-Chief returned to England, leaving Lord Kitchener to deal with the guerrilla operations, which continued for another two years. These operations were finally rendered harmless by the building of a series of blockhouses which isolated the enemy, and at last the Boers sued for peace. The treaty which ended the war was signed at Pretoria on 31st May, 1902.

It had been a tragic conflict, and Britain paid a heavy

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price for victory in the lives of many thousands of her brave sons from all parts of the Empire.

South Africa, also, had suffered from the devastation of two and a half years' war, and the Boers might well have despaired of the future. The British Government, however, came to their aid with financial and other assistance, and three years later, by the wise statesmanship of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, the Transvaal and Orange River Colony were granted responsible self-government, and thus were admitted into the great family of British nations on equal terms with the rest.

NATAL.—Natal adjoins Cape Colony, and since 1903 has included the whole area formerly known as Zululand. The province, including Zululand, comprises an area of 35,371 square miles, and its coast-line is 376 miles in length. It is a little more than one-third the size of the United Kingdom.

This part of South Africa was the section discovered by Vasco da Gama on his way to India in 1497, and he named it Natal because it was on Christmas Day (the natal day, or birthday, of Christ) that he first saw it. He landed at a spot north of Delagoa Bay, where he stayed for five days and bought copper and ivory from the natives, who appeared to be very friendly. The Portuguese, however, did not claim the land, and very little was heard of the country until the year 1824.



Lord Kitchener

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when a few English traders established themselves at the harbour of Durban, then called Port Natal.

The Zulus were always a great trouble to the early settlers in Natal, who were chiefly of Dutch nationality, and the farmers had many serious fights with their bloodthirsty neighbours. The Zulu chief, Dingaan, however, was finally defeated and driven into regions unknown to the whites.

The English and Dutch farmers were weak in numbers compared with the Zulus, but they fought bravely.

After a time Dutch emigrants began to arrive in Natal in larger numbers, the farmers became stronger than the English, and quarrelling became frequent. They imported immense quantities of ammunition by way of Cape Town, although they had a port of their own, and the English became a little suspicious of the warlike attitude of the Dutch residents. At length serious trouble arose between the peoples of Natal and Cape Colony, and the British troops on the border were reinforced in the year 1842.

A contest was inevitable, because of disputes about land, and Captain Thomas Smith, with only 263 British soldiers, started on a march to Durban, where he formed a camp. The Dutch Parliament (*Volksraad*) sent a protest. As no notice was taken of it, Commandant General Prétorius got together a commando of farmers, most of whom had come from the Cape and were British born, and marched toward Smith and requested him to leave Natal. The captain refused, and a battle followed, when the British camp was besieged and the soldiers all but compelled to surrender because of scarcity of food. Horses were killed and eaten and biscuit dust was served out in small portions, but happily there was

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plenty of water, which was obtained by sinking wells in the encampment.

Pretorius proceeded to strengthen his force, and in a few days he had 600 men. Things looked very bad indeed for Captain Smith, but he was able to get a messenger—Dick King, to whom a monument was erected at Durban in 1915—out of the camp. After nine days of exciting escapes and adventures King reached Grahamstown, 600 miles distant, where there were some British soldiers. Thus learning of the plight of their countrymen, a hundred of these soldiers embarked on a schooner at Algoa Bay, and another force at Simon's Bay, and the contingent arrived at Port Natal on Sunday, 25th June (1842). The armed farmers were not a little surprised, as they saw not only the ships packed with soldiers, but several boats also, which were being towed by the ships. They, however, opened fire and killed three of the British during the landing. They then made off, and the English took peaceful possession of the town and harbour, a small force going to the relief of Captain Smith and his army. Natal thus became a British possession, but more than three years elapsed before British rule was properly established. Pietermaritzburg, situated fifty-four miles inland from Durban, is the capital. It was founded by the Boers three years previous to the British occupation.

The Natal town, however, that has the most interesting record in the history of the colony is Ladysmith, which stands on the Klip river, 65 miles from the capital and 190 miles from Durban, and which is named after the wife of Sir Henry Smith, one of the best and most respected governors the colony has had. It was in Ladysmith, during the last Boer War, that

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Sir George White and his gallant army were besieged by the Boers, who surrounded the town on 22nd November, 1899, and remained until driven away on 28th February, 1900.

General Sir Redvers Buller made most determined efforts to raise the siege, but was severely defeated by the Boers at Colenso, and subsequent offensives also failed.

Things meantime were so bad in Ladysmith that at one time General Buller suggested to General White, by means of signals from one of the surrounding hills, that he should surrender, but Sir George White, to his eternal honour, replied that he would continue to defend the town until compelled to give in. Attack after attack was made upon the town, but the Union Jack was kept flying, and finally the Boer forces, under General Joubert, were weakened by the necessity of sending drafts to strengthen the Boers against the advance of Lord Roberts in the Transvaal. The enemy was defeated on the Tugela river by General Buller, and Ladysmith was relieved after a siege of 118 days.

Many stories of that wonderful Christmas Day (1899) in Ladysmith have been told. One of the most interesting is perhaps that recorded by a private—W. Brockwell, of the K.R.R. Describing his experiences, he says, in a London journal :

“ We were hemmed in on all sides by the Boers. Their big guns pounded us incessantly, sickness was rife, and to crown all we had precious little to eat. A few of us in our mess had a little money, and I was deputed to go out and buy something extra for our Christmas Day breakfast. I had visions of eggs at first,

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but found they were selling at 10s. the dozen, the cheapest. For twenty-eight potatoes, and not very big ones at that, I was asked 30s. Fresh butter was worth its weight in gold almost. So in the end I bought two pound pots of mule fat, for which I paid 6s. This helped down our breakfast of dry bread and weak tea. For dinner we had the usual bully beef, but we managed a pudding, such as it was, the principal ingredients being flour, currants, and tallow. It was, I suppose, about the worst apology for a Christmas pudding that ever was, but we managed to 'get outside it' nevertheless. Not a scrap of it was left over. Our only strong drink was the regulation tot of rum, which was served out to all of us on Christmas morning. This we mixed with filtered water. The raw water from the river was undrinkable, for after the first few weeks of the siege it became so poisoned with carcasses and offal as to be little better than a stream of putrid mud.

"We made no attempt to put up any Christmas decorations. What was the use? We had been forced long before to abandon our comfortable huts, owing to the Boer fire, and Christmas Day saw us living underground in caves dug out near the river-bank. Here we crouched, listening to the shells screaming overhead, for the enemy started bombarding us before breakfast and continued it at intervals through the day. One of their shells bore the inscription in English, 'Compliments of the Season.' It did not explode, and for a very good reason. When we picked it up we found that a wooden plug had been substituted for the fuse, and the interior was stuffed with plum pudding. Another one which had been similarly rendered harmless contained a Union Jack, and on the outside was inscribed, 'With the com-

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pliments of the Boers besieging Ladysmith.' It is usual on active service to relieve outposts, whenever possible, for a couple of hours in the middle of the afternoon on Christmas Day, volunteers being called upon for the purpose. This, of course, is done so that the men on duty may come in and rest for a spell and enjoy in comfort their share of whatever good things there may be on the board. But in our case this was deemed to be impossible, and the men had to remain at their posts until they were relieved at the usual hour, 4 A.M. the following morning. All they got in the way of extras on Christmas Day was their usual tot of commissariat rum."

ZULULAND.—Zululand is now incorporated in Natal. One part of it came under British rule in 1887, and the remaining parts were annexed to Natal ten years later. Zululand is divided by the Tugela river from the rest of Natal, and its population is nearly all black—there are, in fact, about 200 Zulus to every white man. The total area of Zululand itself is 10,461 square miles, or one and a half times that of Wales.

The Zulus are so named from a legendary chief, Zulu, ancestor of Dingiswayo, founder of the Zulu state at the close of the eighteenth century. They have always been a race of bloodthirsty warriors, and under one of their chiefs they became, from 1800 to 1828, a terror to all the surrounding peoples. They never liked the white invasion of Natal, some parts of which had been forcibly taken by Boers, while others had been secured by peaceful arrangement. In 1879 Cetewayo declared war and sent 18,000 of his warriors to attack a British force of 800 men under General Thesiger (afterward Lord Chelmsford), the opposing

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forces meeting at the now historic spot named Isandula on 22nd January.

On the eventful day Lieutenant (afterward General) Smith-Dorrien was out scouting, when he saw the Zulus on their way to the British camp. They saw him too, and it was a race for life. The young Englishman reached the camp in safety, but the Zulus were close at his heels, and, quickly surrounding the camp, they attacked the British with their assagais.

It was a bad day for the English. Few of our soldiers escaped death, but they fought bravely, and there were over 2000 Zulu casualties before the last shot was fired. The tragedy of Isandula, and the loss of about 700 British soldiers, cast a gloom over the whole Empire.

It was at Isandula that a British soldier was saved by a tattoo mark. Our soldiers and sailors are very fond of tattooing their bodies, and while scouting just before the battle a soldier was captured by Zulus. After being kept a prisoner for a day he was told that he would be killed the next morning. The man replied that if he were killed the devil pictured on his chest would revenge him. Being very superstitious, the Zulus unfastened his shirt, when they saw a tattooed image. They at once set him free, and he rejoined his regiment, went safely through the whole war, and died in England in 1916.

The silver lining to the black cloud of Isandula was the battle of Rorke's Drift which followed, one of the most brilliant events in the history of the British Army, and one that saved Natal from invasion, for if the post had fallen the Zulus could have overrun the colony. The few British soldiers who got away from Isandula

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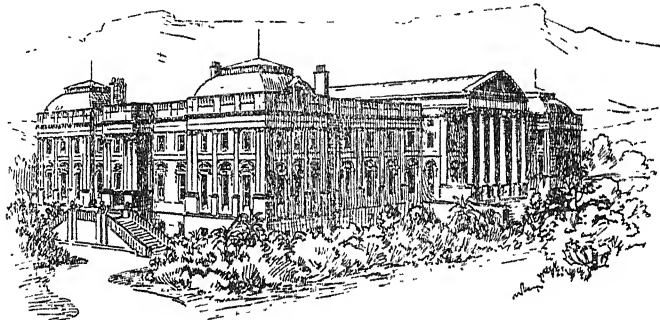
retired a few miles to Rorke's Drift, where a detachment had been left in charge of stores, the whole force numbering 130 and being under the charge of two lieutenants, Bromhead and Chard. The little army set to work to enclose itself with a wall made of stones, rice-bags, biscuit-tins, etc., and before the task was completed 4000 Zulus appeared, led by a brother of Cetewayo. Six times the Zulus surged over the frail wall, and six times they were flung back by the heroic defenders. Throughout the action, a clergyman known to the soldiers as 'good old parson Smith,' went round to the men, giving them cartridges and water. He also encouraged them with kindly words and repeatedly roared out: "Don't swear at them, my lads. Shoot the devils!" And shoot they did, with good effect, for when the Zulus were at last driven away nearly 400 of them were left dead around the little fort. The British losses were 17 killed and 10 wounded.

The final battle of the war was fought at Ulundi in July. Lord Chelmsford formed his army into a hollow square, against which about 18,000 of Cetewayo's men dashed themselves in vain. Beaten back by a terrible storm of British bullets, and despairing of success, they broke and fled, pursued by the cavalry. Cetewayo was captured soon after the battle, and subsequently visited England, where he was well received and very much liked. He behaved himself so well that he was, in 1883, allowed to return to his people, among whom he died shortly afterward. Since then, except for a few troubles, notably one with Lobengula, the chief of the Matabeles, the relations between the British and the Zulus have been very friendly.

These various states, whose history we have treated

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separately, now form one great whole under the title of the Union of South Africa. In the year 1909 Cape Colony, Natal, the Transvaal and Orange River Colony were brought together under one Government, and a vast area of Africa, covering some 865,000 square miles (seven times larger than the United Kingdom) was



Parliament House, Cape Town

brought within a common government under the British flag. General Botha was the first Prime Minister and the loyalty of the Dutch since that time has been remarkable.

Many notable things have been said about the loyalty of General Botha, but the most memorable Botha saying is his own. It was uttered in 1907, when the swearing-in took place of his first ministry under the British Empire. "Great Britain," he said, "will never have cause to regret the trust to-day placed in the Boer people." The almost miraculous transformation of a great foe into a greater friend was the fruit of a noble act of reconciling statesmanship. Once more it proved that loyalty is the child of freedom, that freedom is the welder of Empire. In a speech at the beginning of the

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Great European War Botha said : “ In the past the people of South Africa had said : ‘ Trust us ; we shall deserve your trust.’ Would they now, the first time that the Empire was faced with troubles, stand aside ? To-day they must prove to the British who were watching them that they were worthy of that trust.” And nobly did they do so.

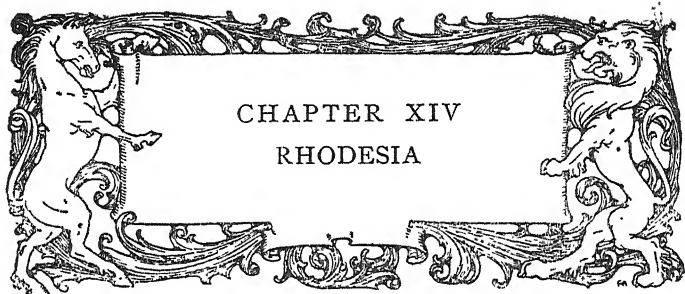


General Botha

One of General Botha's great services to the Empire was the creation of the South African Labour Corps, a body of Zulus, Basutos, and other natives who did excellent work behind the fighting line in France during the war. Among these natives was a nephew of Cetewayo, and a son of another chief—Dinizulu—who, in reply to questions asked by a visitor,

said that they and their comrades were proud to be with the great army of the Empire, that they were very happy even though the weather was at times colder than they dreamed of, yet, thanks to good fires and food and their blue serge uniform, puttees, and good boots, they were very comfortable and very happy. Many wanted to take guns or spears and enter the fighting line, but they were not permitted to do so.

Botha died in September 1919, deeply mourned by men and women throughout the British Empire.



CHAPTER XIV

RHODESIA

IN the heart of Africa, covering an area of 450,000 square miles—more than double the size of France—lies the great section of the British Empire known as Rhodesia. It is so named after the man who, above all others, was responsible for bringing it under the British Flag—Cecil Rhodes.

It is under earlier names that what we now know as Rhodesia came first into notice. This part of Africa was inhabited by native tribes, and from the names they gave to the land in which they lived, or from the native name of the tribe itself, we get parts of it named as Basutoland, Bechuanaland, Matabeleland, Griqualand, Mashonaland, etc. In fact, the story of Rhodesia can be better told by considering these tribal sections separately, and finally recounting the steps by which they became united into the province of Rhodesia.

Our first practical knowledge of this region is due to the famous explorer, Dr David Livingstone, who spent sixteen years—1840 to 1856—in medical and missionary labours on behalf of the London Missionary Society. In his time, and for many years afterward, tribes inhabiting Matabeleland and Bechuanaland were terrible enemies of each other. Their wars were chiefly cattle

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wars—they were nearly always fighting for each other's cattle. Livingstone tells us that there were two separate branches of native tribes, known respectively as Makoldo, of a pale yellow colour, inhabiting the neigh-



British Territory in Central Africa compared with United Kingdom

bourhood of the Victoria Falls on the Zambesi river and Lake Nyami, and the Makalaka, of a black colour and by far the more numerous. The latter were a kind of conqueror, and are thought to have been a race of pure blacks from the north of Africa. The Makalaka fall into three great subdivisions: (1) the Matabele, (2) the Basuto, and (3) the Bakalahari, each containing many tribes. The Matabeles are a warlike branch of

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the Zulu race, much dreaded in the past by neighbouring tribes for their warring practices and cattle raids. The Basutos, on the other hand, are peace-loving agriculturists, whom the Boers enslaved when they settled upon their territory after trekking from Cape Colony. The Bakalaharis inhabited the Kalahari desert, where they had been driven by more energetic rivals.

It may be mentioned here that the name 'desert' is applied to a large part of Rhodesia because it contains no rivers and very few springs or wells. But it is not destitute of vegetation. The desert is covered with grass and creeping plants, with large patches of bushes. It is very flat, and in Livingstone's day vast herds of antelopes—an animal requiring little water—roamed there at large.

From the coaling station for ships established by the early Dutch settlers at Cape Town, an ever-widening circle of adventurers, explorers, and settlers extended northward. And so far as Englishmen were concerned, the line of march was mainly west of what are now the Transvaal and Orange River colonies. It was thus that Griqualand, the Kalahari, Bechuanaland, and Matabeleland were in turn brought under the flag. And the gradual and peaceful extension of English rule is due almost entirely to the driving force and aspirations of one man—Cecil Rhodes—whose wonderful career will be read with interest.

Cecil Rhodes was the son of the Vicar of Bishop's Stortford, Hertfordshire. He was not strong as a boy, and for the sake of his health was sent, at the age of seventeen, to a brother in business as a cotton-planter in Natal. The pure African air did wonders for the lad,

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and he soon became quite well. A year after his arrival diamonds were discovered, and he and his brother gave up the cotton business and took to the diamond fields. Cecil Rhodes returned to England for a time in order to finish his studies at Oxford, where, when standing one day with his tutor before a map of Africa, he drew his



Cecil Rhodes

hand across it and said: "That all red. That is my dream," referring, of course, to the common practice of marking British possessions red upon a map. With this dream in his mind he returned to South Africa, and between the years 1873 and 1881 laid the foundation of that great fortune which he desired in order that his dreams might be realized.

The next stage was to enter into politics. In 1881 he became a member of the House of Assembly at Cape Town (the Cape Parliament), and later was sent to Basutoland to discuss some important matters with the natives. It was on this mission that he met General Gordon, the hero of Khartum. Gordon was not a man who cared for much opposition, and the story goes that Gordon one day said to Rhodes: "You always contradict me, Rhodes. I never saw such a man for his own opinion. You always think you are right and everybody else is wrong." And it is the men who believe they are right, and have the courage of their opinions, who usually succeed. This was the secret of Cecil Rhodes' success.

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Rhodes was so successful in Basutoland affairs that he was selected later to deal with the Griqualand boundaries and to see about the acquisition of Mashonaland and Matabeleland. Bechuanaland, too, was a place with which Rhodes had to deal. This protectorate lies west of the Transvaal, and is 400 miles long by 450 miles broad. In 1884 the British took over the country and Rhodes was made the Resident Commissioner. He had not been there long before he discovered that the Transvaal Boers were overrunning the place and threatening to take possession. Rhodes then arranged for the entry of 4000 British soldiers under Sir Charles Warren, and when the invading Boers heard of this they withdrew peacefully. In the following year Bechuanaland was made a British Crown colony, British rule being thereby the more firmly established and a splendid province added to the Empire. The inhabitants included a tribe of natives known as Bamangwatos, ruled by a chief named Khama, who happily was a friend of the British, a believer in education, a strict total abstainer, and altogether an excellent man. This was truly an auspicious beginning, and the British began to find out that Rhodes was the right man in the right place, as troubles at that time were frequent in the whole of South Africa.

Matabeleland and Mashonaland, which lie north-east of Bechuanaland, were hotbeds of trouble. The Matabele people were, as we have learned, a military race something like the Zulus. The inhabitants of Mashonaland were not so warlike, but were, in fact, weak both morally and physically, owing, it is said, to Matabele tyranny. Rhodes discovered in the year 1887 that

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both the Boers of the Transvaal and the Portuguese, who had territory near, wanted parts, if not the whole, of Matabeleland, and he set to work to check them. His first and successful task was to make an agreement with the great native chief, Lobengula. Lobengula was persuaded to ask for British protection against the Boer and Portuguese invaders, and he promised not to let any foreigners have any of his country without the sanction of the British. Again and again Rhodes frustrated the plans of the Dutch and their President, Kruger, and secured from Lobengula a monopoly in the right to search for gold and diamonds. In the year 1889 he formed a trading company, something like the old East India Company, and called it the British South Africa Company. It was popularly known as the Chartered Company.

He next, at the age of forty-three, became Premier of Cape Colony and Prime Minister of the Cape Parliament, at which period his old friend Lobengula became troublesome and attacked the British settlers in Matabeleland. The latter held their own and successfully assaulted Bulawayo, the native capital. Lobengula fled, and was pursued by Major Alan Wilson with thirty-three troopers, but the gallant band met with disaster, being slain to a man. This was the only setback in a campaign which was otherwise completely successful.

It was during this trouble that Rhodes himself led a force of armed horsemen, called Rhodesia Horse, and was joined by some English soldiers sent by the Government, among them being Major Baden-Powell, who afterward defended Mafeking. Rhodes decided to go straight to the chiefs of the quarrelsome Matabeles, and

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alone, except for a sivut and an interpreter—for he did not know the native language sufficiently well to argue with the chiefs. Hiding their revolvers and carrying a white flag, the brave men rode into the midst of the savage warriors. Rhodes then asked the chiefs to tell him their troubles, which they did. Complaints were made about harsh treatment by the white police, the taking of their cattle as a punishment, and several other things of no great importance. The 'great white man' listened patiently, and then replied to all their complaints. When he had finished the black chief rose, threw down his weapons before Rhodes, and said: "I cast them at your feet." The savage warriors rose and shouted at their leader's signal of peace, making unmistakable signs of approval. Rhodes had won a bloodless victory and the Matabele trouble was at an end. As he rode from the scene to join the English soldiers, who were waiting for him some miles away, he looked back at the Matabeles and said to the men who were with him: "It is such scenes as this that make life worth living."

It was a great and noble adventure, and if Rhodes made a few errors in his time, he made up for them by this very peaceful victory over the Matabele warriors. The trouble might have caused a serious war, and hundreds of white men might have been slain, but instead the British victory was secured without a shot being fired or a spear thrown.

It is said that Rhodes was partly to blame for the trouble, because, when he made those early arrangements for gold- and diamond-digging, he paid Lobengula with rifles and ammunition, which he should have anticipated might be used against him.

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The natives are chiefly Matabeles, who, since they and Lobengula were defeated, have, save for an outbreak in 1896, been a friendly and useful people. They are branches of the Zulu race, having for some reason been expelled from Zululand proper in 1838.

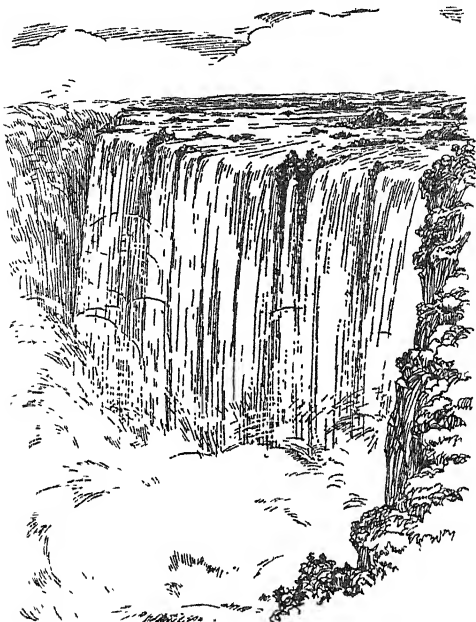
The Matabele trouble being ended, Rhodes turned to the realization of his dream of a great British corridor from the Cape to Cairo—a railway 5700 miles in length, which should bind together all the British possessions in Africa and shorten the sea passage to the Cape. The Boers at first objected strongly to the idea, but their objections made no difference to Rhodes, who started to lay the track, which has since been completed.

Rhodes was truly a great Englishman. He died in 1902 at his residence on the slopes of Table Mountain, and his remains were finally laid on a stone kopje among the Matoppo Hills, a place in Rhodesia which he greatly loved. It was an impressive funeral. Around the simple grave, cut a yard deep in the solid rock, stood the most prominent of the British officials, native chiefs, and about 2000 natives, and many of the latter, we are told, were heard to say, "Our father is dead." The native chiefs and their subjects trusted this great man, a man who builded well and truly for the British in South Africa, and whose name will never be forgotten. On his tomb are engraved his last words: "So much^{to} to do; so little done."

The Zambesi divides Rhodesia from British Central Africa. This river is one of the largest in the world, and on it are the famous falls discovered by Dr Livingstone in 1855, and named by him the Victoria Falls. They equal Niagara in magnificence, but are not so easy to reach, being 230 miles from Bulawayo. The

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falls are 1860 yards across and 400 feet high, and over the gorge below them is one of the largest railway bridges in the world, 420 feet high and 650 feet long.



The Victoria Falls

It was opened in September 1905, and over it runs the Cape to Cairo Railway.

Rhodesia, particularly the southern part, is now a valuable possession, as gold, silver, copper, diamonds, and coal exist, the first and the last being worked largely.

BAROTSELAND (North-west Rhodesia) is of particular interest because of its famous king, Lewanika, and the part France played in converting him and 'discovering'

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the district. It was as far back as 1878 that the Paris Protestant Missionary Society, which had failed in a first attempt through the opposition of the Boers, detached from their staff in Basutoland François Coillard, who trekked to Victoria Falls and eventually found himself in Lialui, King Lewanika's capital. He soon managed to get in the king's favour, so much so that Lewanika seldom took any important decision without asking Coillard's advice. Many are the lives which those French Protestant missionaries laid down in this British Protectorate for the Master's sake, and very heavy were the expenses of the Paris society. After a long life devoted to the reclaiming of that people in the heart of Africa, François Coillard died in harness in 1904.

King Lewanika, who died in February 1916, was one of the most intellectual and able of African native chiefs, having ruled Barotseland for forty-five years, latterly under British protection. Beginning his reign in the traditional ways of tyranny, he provoked a revolution, and had to flee the country. In his exile he came under British influences, and learnt some of the secrets of government. When the chance came he drove the usurper from his throne and began to reform the country, greeting the missionaries as brothers, and setting up local tribunals, much preferable to the old 'smelling-out' process by witch doctors.

In 1890, by a treaty with Cecil Rhodes, acting for the Chartered Company, Barotseland became an appanage of the British Empire, and the active king's achievements may be recognized from the following report by Major Coryndon, Administrator of Barotseland, in 1906 :

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“ The dangerous Ethiopian movement obtained some foothold some few years ago, but Lewanika himself removed the menace. The Government is now establishing large technical schools at Lialui at the king's desire. He has rendered great assistance by compiling a census as a basis for the collection of the hut tax in the Barotse Valley. He has recently, by public proclamation, given the final deathblow to the ancient system of serfdom or domestic slavery. He has freed every slave in his dominion, between 25,000 and 30,000 natives being thus liberated.”

King Lewanika was a picturesque guest of King Edward at the Coronation.



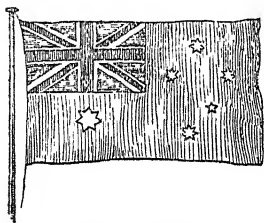
AUSTRALIA is the largest island in the world, being more than twenty-four times the size of the British Isles. So large is it that it is called a continent in geography books. But while the other four continents of Europe, Asia, Africa, and America are divided into countries, each with its own king or president, Australia forms one great state, known as the Commonwealth of Australia. The Commonwealth is formed of six parts or provinces. Just as Great Britain consists of England, Wales, and Scotland, so the Commonwealth of Australia consists of New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, Victoria, Western Australia, and the island of Tasmania.

Compared with the history of, say, India, the past of Australia is very peaceful. No war was needed to secure it as part of the British Empire ; no great English general ever fought for it. The past of Australia is concerned with the trader, the emigrant, and the discoverer. Australia, as it were, only wanted discovering, and its history commenced peacefully with the arrival of people who simply wanted to live quietly on the land they tilled.

It is very doubtful who first discovered Australia.

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The first proper account of any part of the great island came from a Spanish discoverer called Torres, who sailed along the northern shores about 1606, and in memory of whom the strait between Australia and New Guinea is called Torres Strait. Between 1606 and 1628 a number of Dutchmen explored parts of the coast-line



Flag of Australia

on the west and north-west, and called the country New Holland. They were followed in turn by a noted English pirate—William Dampier by name—who sailed in Australian waters for about ten years—from 1689 to 1699.

William Dampier was born in Somersetshire, at a little village called East Coker. The sea called to him, as it has called to so many Englishmen, and he sailed as an adventurer all over the world. He was known—and dreaded—everywhere, especially in China, Mexico, Chili, and Peru. Wherever he went he pillaged ships, towns, and villages. You have read, no doubt, the wonderful story of Robinson Crusoe. The story is founded on fact to the extent that a poor sailor, Alexander Selkirk by name, lived alone for some years on a small island off the coast of South America. It was William Dampier who happened to call at this lonely island of Juan Fernandez and rescue Selkirk.

In 1686 Dampier started off on a voyage round the world. About three years later he landed on the shores of Australia—the first Englishman to do so. He hoped to discover a second America, as the Spaniards had done—a second America, where there were great fortunes to be made and silver and gold to be obtained

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by a little fighting. Dampier landed in Australia and sought for its inhabitants and its great cities. Surely such a great stretch of country must be the home of a great nation. But he found no traces of such. He came back to say that the inhabitants were savages, living in the open without clothing ; that there were no signs of cultivation of the land ; that corn did not grow there, and that the whole land was unfit for cultivation. It was a part of what is now called Western Australia that Dampier visited, and what he said is true even to-day of parts of it. If he had visited the eastern coast—Queensland, New South Wales, and Victoria, as it is now called—as did later English explorers, his story would have been very different.

A visit to the east coast of Australia took place in 1769. For many years Englishmen had been talking about a great unexplored land in the southern half of the globe. The talk came to something in 1768, when it was decided to collect money and ships and send out an expedition. The man in charge was Lieutenant James Cook, now famous to all the world as Captain Cook. Captain James Cook was a Yorkshireman, being born at Marton, in Yorkshire, in 1728. His father was a very poor man, an agricultural labourer. When the boy was old enough to work he became an errand-boy in a small shop at Staiths, near Whitby. One morning the shutters of the shop were not taken down ; the owner, thinking young Cook had overslept himself, looked for him under the counter. But his hard bed there was empty. He had turned his back on an errand-boy's career and had run away to sea as cabin-boy on a collier trading between Newcastle and Norway. On that vessel, by his grit and endurance,

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young Cook rose to be mate. Still ambitious, he left her and joined the Royal Navy.

In those days Englishmen had little love for the hard ways of the Navy, and the crews had to be got mainly by means of the press-gang. That is to say, a body of sailors in charge of an officer could come ashore and kid-



Captain Cook

nap for service in their ship whatever young fellows of suitable age they found in a town or village. Naturally, then, when young Cook joined of his own accord, he was looked upon with much favour. Besides, he was already a sailor, and not like the 'pressed' men and boys, who had to be taught everything about a vessel. Cook rose rapidly in the Navy and became master of a ship. As captain of the

ship *Mercury* he went to Canada in General Wolfe's expedition, which was to win Canada for the Empire. On that expedition he gave proof of his mettle by undertaking the dangerous service of making soundings of the river opposite the French camp. He was afterward appointed surveyor of the Newfoundland and Labrador coasts, and his charts, together with an accurate description of an eclipse of the sun, brought him to the notice of the English scientists. Consequently, when they required a leader for their expedition to the South Seas, they thought of Captain James Cook, the one-time errand-boy of a Yorkshire village.

The expedition set sail from Plymouth—the town

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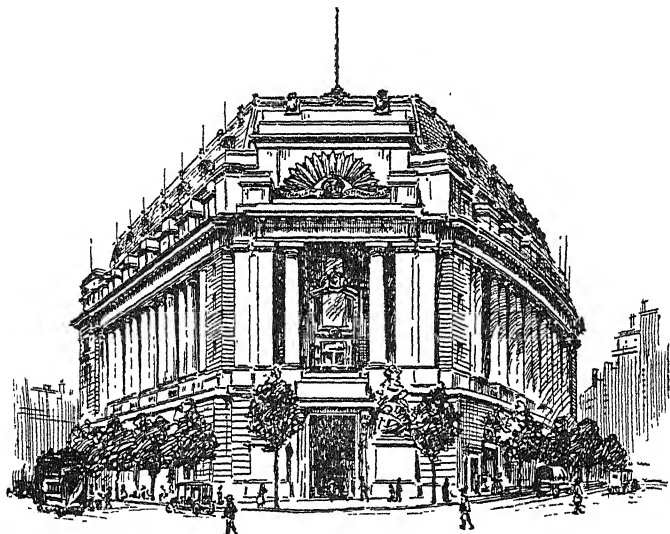
from which famous English sailors such as Frobisher, Drake, Grenville, Raleigh, and Blake have sailed on their great missions—on the 26th August, 1769, in a ship named the *Endeavour*. The crew consisted of eighty-five seamen, and a party of scientists was also on board. Captain Cook made for the Pacific Ocean, and, after rounding Cape Horn, the southernmost point of South America, sailed among the many islands of the Pacific and landed at Tahiti. After a stay of several weeks the *Endeavour* set off again, and seven weeks later New Zealand was sighted, and the expedition landed there for a brief period. They next went on to the Australian shores, and anchored on 28th April, 1770. The first man to go ashore was the great and famous naturalist Sir Joseph Banks, one of the scientists responsible for the expedition. The bay in which the *Endeavour* had anchored was a beautiful one, known as Sting Rays Harbour, and Banks found an endless variety of new and unknown plants and flowers. Delighted with the spot, a paradise for a botanist, he suggested the name it bears to-day, Botany Bay, a title which was in after years to be a terror to the evil-doer in England. The country they named New South Wales.

It is true that no criminals or convicts were ever landed at Botany Bay, but it was supposed that they were, and to be sent to Botany Bay meant to the English criminal 'transportation for life.'

It is curious to think that we gained Australia because we lost our colonies in America! Owing to the overcrowding of English prisons, and the need of cheap labour in America, it became the practice about the year 1600 to send out criminals who had been sentenced to long terms of imprisonment to the colonists, who

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paid about £8 for each convict. Then, in 1776, the American colonies declared their independence and the traffic was stopped. As a consequence the English prisons again became very crowded and it was decided



Australia House, London

to send the convicts to the new land explored by Captain Cook. In 1787 the first batch, in charge of Admiral Phillip, was sent out. There were eleven ships in all, carrying 565 men, 144 women, and 11 child convicts, and 443 soldiers and sailors and their wives. Their destination was Botany Bay, but arriving there they found the anchorage not good, and on 26th January, 1788, they accordingly entered and landed at Sydney Cove, a spot on which the great capital of New South Wales now stands.

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Thus it came about that the Botany Bay of Captain Cook and Sir Joseph Banks was never used for the landing of criminals, although the place had become a by-word by reason of the popular belief to the contrary. Some historians tell us that, two days after the Englishmen arrived and hoisted the British flag, a French admiral entered the bay with his fleet to take possession. So narrowly did the French lose the great and wonderful continent of Australia !

Admiral (afterward Governor) Arthur Phillip (1738-1814) may be said to have laid the foundation-stone of the Commonwealth. His was not an easy task, but Phillip was a brave man, and he succeeded in his mission. Although a Briton, he had served for many years in the navy of our oldest ally, Portugal. When he was selected to found the colony, he was regarded by the Admiralty with something like contempt. His little fleet was in a state of latent mutiny on the voyage out, and for three years in the new land he had to face the possibility of starvation. But he overcame all difficulties on a wave of success. One of the finest stories of Governor Phillip is that which tells of how he was attacked while visiting the chief, Bennilong, and wounded by a spear. He refused to retaliate and lived to hear Bennilong pleading that he should be allowed to accompany the forgiving Governor to England when he returned in 1793.

The exile of English convicts was continued until 1868. It was finally abolished as regards New South Wales in 1851, Tasmania in 1853, and Western Australia sixteen years later. The practice held back the progress of Australia for many years ; the honest emigrant regarded it as a land of convicts, and he went to other

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places in consequence. However, these evil associations are now things of the past, and Australia has long since taken her natural place as one of the greatest and proudest units of the Empire.

South Australia, a territory which in itself is a little



Australia compared with the United Kingdom

more than seven times as large as the United Kingdom, was the next part to be brought under British rule. Matthew Flinders, the man who did the pioneer work in South Australia, was born in 1774 near Boston, in Lincolnshire, and when fifteen years of age entered the Royal Navy, going out to New South Wales six years later as a midshipman. On board his ship was a surgeon named George Bass, who was also from Lincolnshire, and the two, who were both of an adventurous type, became firm friends. They made up their minds to explore

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some of the then unknown parts of Australia, and afterward did so, meeting with many exciting adventures. In course of time Flinders returned to England, and in the year 1801 it was decided to send him out in command of an expedition for the thorough exploration of South Australia, a district then known as Terra Australis, and of which he knew something. The East India Company aided the enterprise, and in the month of July the *Investigator*, a sloop of 360 tons, left Spithead with a crew of picked men under Flinders. An interesting fact is that the crew included a young 'middy,' of the name of John Franklin, who was destined to become a famous Arctic navigator.

The expedition reached Australia, and many gulfs, bays, and other natural features were explored—only just in time, as, a little while before, both the Swiss and the French had thought of taking the territory. The Swiss had laid their plans for making it into a wine-growing country, while the French had made maps, one of which came into the possession of Flinders, on which the land was marked 'Terra Napoleon' (Napoleon's Land), and the gulfs, etc., were named after famous Frenchmen and Frenchwomen—'Buonaparte Gulf,' 'Josephine Bay,' etc. The French ships reached Australia, but there was no trouble, and the British met with no opposition when they took over the country, and there has been no conflict since. It was on 2nd April, 1802, that Flinders met with the French ships. The bay in which they found him he named 'Encounter Bay.' Early explorers did not, as a rule, exhibit originality in naming the places they found. If the reader looks on a large map of South Australia he will see marked thereon Port Lincoln, Sleaford Bay,

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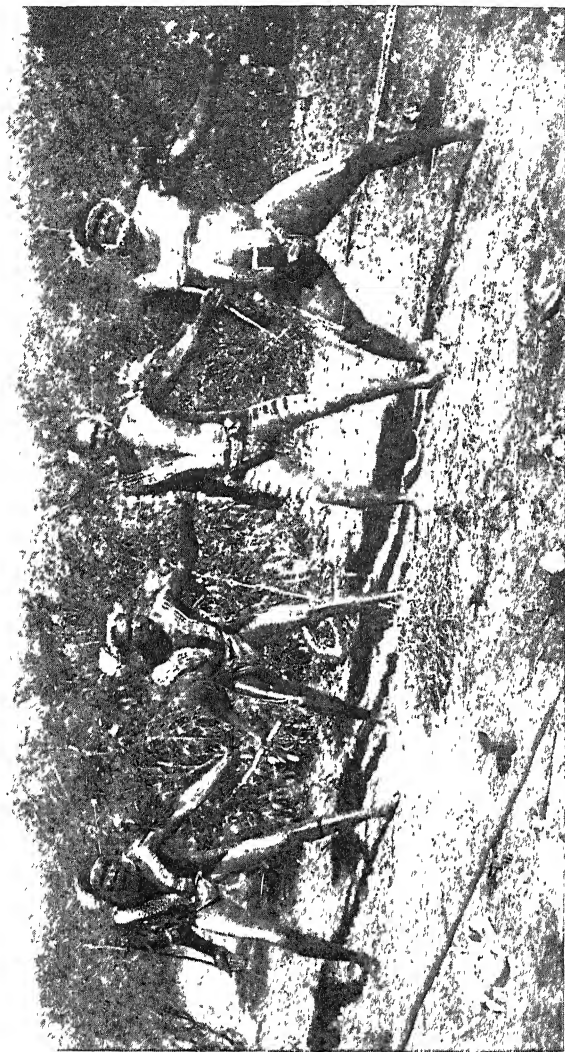
Boston, Louth, and several other places that remind one of Lincolnshire, the home of the discoverer.

Kangaroo Island was also discovered by Flinders, and he gave it that name because of the kangaroos he found there.

The crew at the time was in need of fresh meat, and, seeing the animals running about, the men landed and killed thirty-one of them. The flesh was found to make good eating, and from the tails the men made a delicious soup.

Flinders's work was confined chiefly to the coast. The man who was to follow him, and who explored a large part of the interior, was a soldier, Captain Charles Sturt. He was stationed with his regiment at Sydney, and was sent by the Governor of New South Wales on an expedition to the interior, in the month of November 1828. He was accompanied by Hume, a noted explorer, who acted as second in command, and by two soldiers and six convicts, who acted as servants. They made many valuable discoveries of rivers and lakes. One of the latter, Lake Alexandrina, was so named in honour of the young princess who was to become, in due time, Queen Victoria.

It was due chiefly to Sturt's discoveries that South Australia became colonized. He found out what a beautiful and fertile country it was, and did not fail to tell the British people all about it. The matter was taken up, and by Act of Parliament (1834) authority was given for the creation of a new 'Province of South Australia.' Two years later a trading company was formed, having a capital of £200,000, and ships carrying emigrants, live stock, and general stores were sent out, the first to reach the new colony being the *Duke of*

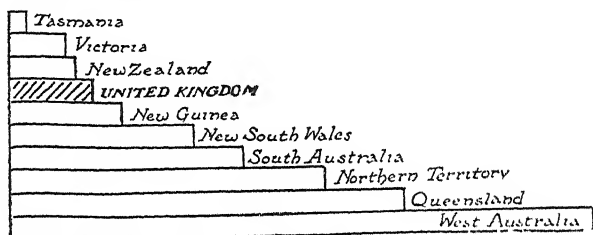


Australian Aborigines

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York, which arrived on 27th July, 1836. The site of the capital, Adelaide, was fixed upon, and when the Governor arrived in December (midsummer in Australia) a cold luncheon was spread under the trees to celebrate the occasion, toasts were drunk with enthusiasm, and the National Anthem sung. Thus the British secured a firm footing in South Australia.

Victoria was the first portion of Australia to be sighted by Captain Cook, in April 1770. It was origin-



Australasia : Comparative areas with United Kingdom

ally part of New South Wales and known as Port Phillip, but in 1850 it became a separate colony, and was named Victoria. Gold was discovered there in 1851, and from that date the colony developed rapidly. Melbourne is the principal town and seaport.

The fine statuary group that flanks the main entrance of Australia House, in the Strand, London, represents the 'Awakening of Australia' and is a fitting memorial to the pioneer explorers particularly associated with the history of Melbourne. The group represents Burke and Wills, who in 1861, with two companions—Gray and King—surveyed the desert from Melbourne to the Gulf of Carpentaria. Only King came back to Melbourne alive, first Gray, then Wills, and finally

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Burke succumbing to the hardships of the return journey. Burke died, lying with his face to the sky and a pistol in his right hand, placed there, at his special request, by King, who was rescued three months later by the relief expedition sent from Melbourne.

Wills, to whose memory an obelisk stands in his native town of Totnes, and who was the expedition's astronomer, wrote in his diary just before he died :

"I am waiting, like Mr Micawber, for something to turn up, and though starving on nardoo seed is not unpleasant, I would prefer a little fat and sugar mixed with it."

Queensland—six and a half times the size of the United Kingdom—was also discovered by Captain Cook, but no British settled there until 1842. It was originally part of New South Wales, as Victoria was, the separation being made in 1859.

The history of Western Australia as a British colony—one nearly eight times the size of the United Kingdom—began in 1826, when the Governor of New South Wales, hearing of the likelihood of the French invasion, and fearing that the French might land, sent some of his soldiers to that part of it known as King George's Sound. The French, however, never arrived. The soldiers were charmed with the place, and wrote to their friends in England about it.

The next stage in the history of the colony began on 2nd May, 1829, when Captain Fremantle landed in Western Australia and hoisted the Union Jack. A month later the first of many ships arrived, carrying 800 settlers and the necessary live stock for colonization. Perth is the capital town, and Fremantle the chief port.

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The story of the building up of Australia must not close without reference being made to 'Wattle Day,' a festival as important to an Australian as St Patrick's Day is to an Irishman. In England the blossom of the wattle plant is known as mimosa. It was adopted as the floral emblem of the Commonwealth by public proclamation in 1911. The plant is in full bloom in Australia in September, the first of which month accordingly is kept as Wattle Day there. Though this celebration as a Federal fixture is only of very recent date, it was forecasted as long ago as 1889 by the foundation of a Wattle Blossom League in Adelaide.

Tasmania is an island separated from Australia proper by a strait—Bass Strait—about 140 miles wide. It has an area of over 26,000 square miles, and it is a little larger than Ceylon and a little smaller than Scotland. It was discovered by Abel Tasman, the Dutch explorer, on 1st December, 1642, but was originally named Van Diemen's Land, because it was Antony van Diemen who organized the expedition.

It was thought at first that the island was part of the mainland of Australia, as the strait which separates it was not explored by Dr Bass, after whom it is named, until 1798. The island was taken possession of by the British in 1803, when Lieutenant Bowen went there with a regiment of soldiers and some convicts. Settlers from the mainland and the Motherland quickly followed. A large convict settlement was formed, but was given up in 1853, when the transportation of convicts ceased. It was then that, at the wish of the inhabitants, the name of the island was changed from Van Diemen's Land to Tasmania.

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The original inhabitants of Tasmania are now quite extinct. At the time of the British occupation they numbered about 4500, and the early settlers are said to have been very cruel to them. Twenty-seven years after the arrival of the British, when the numbers of the original inhabitants had dwindled considerably, an



If Tasmania were in England

effort was made to drive them into one corner of the island and to make them live there by themselves, but it was a failure. When the race was nearly extinct strong efforts were made to improve the conditions under which the aborigines lived, in order to preserve an interesting race, but it was too late. The early cruelties could not be remedied. In 1850 the number had been reduced to sixteen, and in 1876 the last survivor, an

old woman of seventy-three, died.

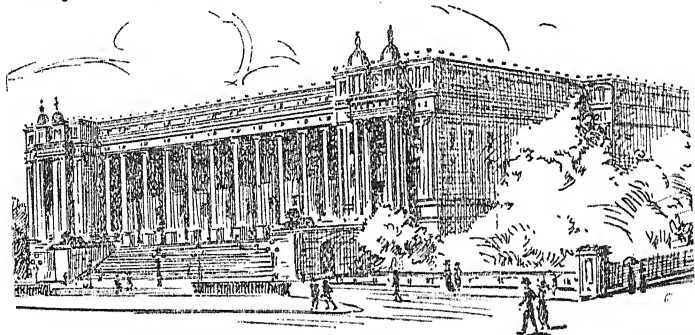
The crowning event in the history of Australia was the formation of what is now known as the Commonwealth, the inauguration of which took place on New Year's Day, 1901. Canberra, on the Cotter river, New South Wales, was chosen as the capital, and a Federal Parliament was formed, the King being represented by a governor-general.

The colony has its own fleet and army (formed in June 1883). The Australian cruiser *Sydney*, which

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sank the German cruiser *Emden* in the Indian Ocean in November 1914, was the first ship built and owned by a colony to go into action.

The population of Australia is less than one-ninth that of Great Britain, but at one period of the Great War no less than 350,000 of her sons were serving in the Army. There was scarcely a family in the island that



Federal Parliament Buildings, Melbourne

did not send a son, brother, or father to fight for freedom. They served in various theatres of war, and it was their proud boast that they were never driven from a trench. It was, however, in the Dardanelles that they gained their chiefest glory. In that awful shambles they showed the world how men may laugh at death. The Dardanelles campaign was the glorious epic of the Australian continent, and the word 'Anzac' is a memorial of the courage of its sons, which will shine out brightly for all time.

The 'Aussies,' as the Australian and New Zealand soldiers are also called, became very familiar in the

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homeland, where they were warmly welcomed during the fateful years of strife with Germany.

NEW GUINEA, or PAPUA, as it is sometimes called, lies north of Australia, and the fauna and flora prove that it is a part of Australia, though the original inhabitants are a distinct race. The whole of New Guinea does not belong to Britain, as the Dutch claim a share, as also did the Germans until the Great War.

Although close to Australia, the island was of no particular interest to the colony until recent years. Holland took possession of a little piece of it in 1848, and was satisfied with it. In 1875 Germany set about taking the rest. It was not until the year 1883, however, that the German attempts became really determined. The Premier of Queensland, fearing the consequences if Germany established herself there, crossed over to New Guinea and took possession of the eastern portion of it—just as much as he thought Queensland would be able to manage. The Premier then reported the facts to England, and a few months later the home Government took over the portion Queensland had secured. In 1888 it was formally proclaimed a British colony, and is to-day part of the Australian Commonwealth.

New Guinea is the largest island in the world except Australia. The total area is 320,000 square miles, which, up to the time of the Great War, was divided up as follows: Dutch, 158,000 square miles; British, 90,540 square miles; and Germany, 70,000 square miles. The original British portion is therefore nearly half as large again as England, and lies wholly within the tropics.

Under the Treaty of Peace, signed at Versailles in

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June 1919, the once German portion—the north, known as Kaiser Wilhelm Land—came under the care of Australia, whose troops fought gallantly there and captured it in September 1914. The colony was governed by a German trading company. The area, including Long Island and Dampier Island, which go with the mainland (70,000 square miles), is ten times as large as Wales.

An impression prevails among people unacquainted with New Guinea that it is a sort of 'white man's grave,' a name which stuck to West Africa for so many years. This impression was brought about when gold was first discovered. There was a great rush to the island in 1877, and much of the mortality among the white diggers was due to the bad sanitation of their camps.

Close by are the islands forming what was known as the Bismarck Archipelago, which was also allotted to Australia under the provisions of the Treaty of 1919. The former seat of the Government was Herbertshohe, now called Kokopo, and the colony comprises many small islands, two of which were formerly called New Britain and New Ireland, names which were displaced by German ones when the islands were acquired by Germany in 1884. The entire area, estimated at 20,000 square miles, was controlled by the German New Guinea authorities, the Archipelago being considered a part of Kaiser Wilhelm Land.



SOUTH-EAST of Australia, 1200 miles away, lies New Zealand, a land often referred to as 'the England of the Pacific.' The latter name is given to the island because the climate is very much like that of England, and every fruit, flower, and vegetable that grows here will grow there. New Zealand consists mainly of two large islands—North Island and South Island—and some smaller ones, the total area being about 104,000 square miles—a little less than the British Isles.

The Dutch explorer Tasman was the first European to see New Zealand. He was exploring in the South Seas, and saw the coast in December 1642, but did not land. We do not hear of the islands again for one hundred and twenty-seven years, when Captain Cook went there in 1770. He was the first European to land, and he hoisted the English flag as a token that he took possession of the country in the name of England.

The Government at home, however, repudiated his action, and for seventy years afterward the land was a No Man's Land. Cook found the native Maori very quarrelsome at first. They objected to his landing, especially as a shot from the gun of one of Cook's men

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had killed one of their number. Happily the explorer had brought with him from Tahiti (the island the expedition had been visiting) a native who could speak the Maori tongue. This native shouted to the inhabitants that they need have no fear. They were so surprised at hearing a stranger speak their language that thirty of them swam out to Cook's ship and invited the explorer to go ashore. The landing party took as presents potatoes, sheep, goats, and pigs. The potatoes pleased the natives immensely, and, as they were told how to plant and grow them, the Maori had a very fine crop the following year. The expedition did not stay long, as Cook was anxious to get back in order to tell the English people of the new and strange land he had found.

During the years that immediately followed Cook's visit a few whaling and other ships called at the islands, with not very pleasing results. The natives were mostly cannibals, and when in 1809 an English ship, named the *Boyd*, called there, the captain and crew were killed and eaten, only one woman and three children being left to tell the tale, they being sheltered by a friendly native and afterward rescued by another British ship.

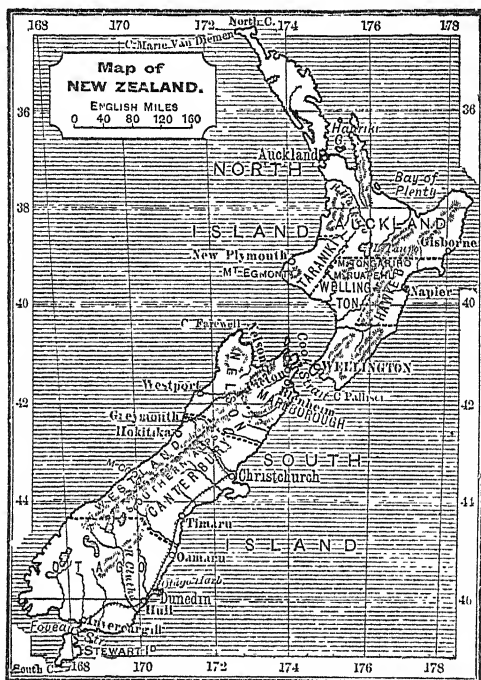
This and other outrages attracted the attention of the people of England and Australia, and a missionary living in New South Wales decided to go and establish a mission station, in order that relations with the



Maori Native

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natives might be improved. He did very well for a time, but in spite of his efforts, and those of some friendly chiefs, the cannibals started their evil work



again, and when in 1816 two ships were wrecked upon the coast, the crews of both were killed and eaten.

Cannibalism has now disappeared. Most, if not all, the early troubles with the Maori were brought about by the visitors not properly understanding their superstitions, or religion, if we may so term it. They were highly superstitious, and a sailor was once killed by

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them for lending a slave a knife and afterward using it to cut some bread for one of the chiefs. Cannibalism was practised by them simply because they imagined that they acquired the strength of the men they ate, and, as they wanted to be as strong as possible, they never failed to kill and eat their enemies. The Maori to-day, however, are clever, their literature and art being exceptionally good. They sing most beautifully, and make the most artistic mats and the strongest of houses. Some of their manners and customs are very interesting. For instance, if a Maori wishes to speak words of insult to another Maori, he calls his adversary some kind of food. Any kind will do, living or dead. One Maori chief once told another that he was a roast veal. Then he fled to the bush, hid in a cave, was tracked, captured, and beheaded. The cave is still shown to visitors, and when Lord Kitchener was in New Zealand he was taken to it, a pretty Maori girl acting as guide.

She told him the whole story, and at the conclusion the soldier's stern face softened into a smile, and he said : " Ah, then, I suppose it would be highly dangerous to call a Maori lady a little duck ? "

As an example of the artfulness of the Maori in warfare, an amusing story is told of the period when the natives were at war with Great Britain. All sorts of tricks, such as are not only fair but commendable in war, were tried. When the Maori were in want of bullets they would show a dummy from behind a tree and, of course, it was immediately fired at, when it was at once pulled down by a string. Up would come the dummy again, cautiously, and the process would be repeated. After the action the bullets would be taken out of an earth-bank which the Maori had made

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behind the tree, and used again. It was long before this artifice was discovered.

Many of the chiefs became very friendly, and one of the most famous of them, Hongi by name, was brought to London in 1820 by a missionary. He was shown the sights and given many beautiful and costly presents,



New Zealand compared with the United Kingdom

including a coat of mail from the King. What interested Hongi most were the wonderful guns, and when taken to the Tower of London great difficulty was experienced in getting him away. He had never seen guns before, and thought them excellent and effective playthings. The British gave him none, as they feared he would do some damage, but on his voyage home he called at Sydney, and there exchanged his costly presents for guns, and bought hundreds more, so that instead of returning home to preach peace to his subjects, he armed them all and caused an immense amount of

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trouble. His neighbours had no such weapons, and in a battle with a rival tribe about 1000 warriors were slain by him ; in another battle, a few days later, 1500 were killed. This gave Hongi such confidence that he attacked the English and destroyed a mission station. Other chiefs, hearing of Hongi's wonderful weapons, naturally became desirous of acquiring some for themselves, and in a very short time most of the tribes were armed, and tribal wars became frequent. In one of these Hongi was killed by a shot.

Stories of the newly found land quickly spread throughout England, and many expressed a wish to go and settle there. Accordingly, in October 1826, the first shipload of settlers—sixty in number—left England for New Zealand. On their arrival they settled on two islands just off the coast, as they were a little afraid of the more savage of the Maori, not without good reason, for Hongi made war upon them and their life soon became unbearable, for little was done by the Government to help them. Many of their number returned to England as quickly as possible.

In 1839 a company, known as the New Zealand Company, was formed in London by Lord Durham to undertake the systematic settlement of the unclaimed land. The first ship to be sent was the *Tory*. Four others quickly followed, and in a short time the company had landed 1200 settlers on the island. The Maori having by this time become more peaceful, land was bought from them, and a very good start was made.

When the news of the company's operations reached England there was considerable excitement, and people asked why England had neglected the new country for so long. This led to Government action, and the

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Colonial Office dispatched emigrants thither, who reached Wellington on 29th January, 1840. A week earlier, however, Captain Hobson had landed with a dormant commission in his possession authorizing him to annex the country. This he did after entering into a treaty with the principal native chiefs, 510 of whom signed it. The British flag was hoisted in South Island in July of the same year, less than a week before the arrival there of a French frigate sent to take possession.

From this time settlements increased rapidly. Wellington was founded first, then other towns were built. In 1841 New Zealand was proclaimed an independent colony, since when all has gone well except for a few troubles with the Maori, who, however, became more peaceful as the number of English settlers increased. The greatest, and last important, trouble was in 1845, when a particularly quarrelsome chief, named Hone Heke, cut down a flagstaff bearing the Union Jack. The governor at that time was a very lenient man, and he put up a new one without making a fuss. This, and a third, were also cut down. With 800 warriors the old chief then started plundering some of the Englishmen's farms. At last a British man-of-war arrived, and after some little fighting things became quiet again. The governor was replaced by Sir George Grey, who stands in relation to New Zealand as Lord Clive and Warren Hastings stand to India. As a result of his work, the colony is one of the brightest jewels of the Empire's crown.

Sir George Grey was born at Lisbon in 1812, only eight days after his soldier father had been killed in the storming of Badajoz. For a short time young George

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was in the Army, but he preferred exploration and the study of colonial problems. His distinguished career in New Zealand began in November 1845, when he was appointed Governor. It was a critical time in the history of New Zealand, and many thought the appointment of a governor only thirty-three years old to be a mistake. It proved, however, to be one of the wisest appointments ever made.

There were at that time about 125,000 armed Maori warriors in the colony, all very much dissatisfied with five years of British rule, and the 10,000 white people, mostly untrained, were largely at their mercy. Grey realized, as did others, that a great Maori victory would mean the ultimate destruction of the British in the colony. His first task



Sir George Grey

was to prevent the enemy getting more rifles and ammunition, and to make as many friends as possible. Happily he won the esteem of Waka Heke, a chief who had many warriors. He did this largely by seeing that the chief's followers were regularly fed. Grey also brought a considerable sum of money from Australia, and within five weeks of his arrival had obtained over 1000 British soldiers from India and China. When all was ready he advanced and attacked the Maori, who fought under the hostile chief, Hone Heke. The British were victorious at a cost of only 12 killed and 31 wounded. Other small

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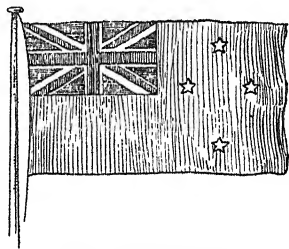
battles took place, and in February 1848 a general peace was declared.

Sir George's policy was to win the love and esteem of the conquered Maori, and he did this by listening very patiently to their troubles, and by helping them in every possible way. During the four months that followed the declaration of peace he did wonders with them, and when at the end of that time his house was destroyed by fire, some of the Maori wrote him a letter of sympathy. The letter was addressed to their ' friend the governor,' and in it they said : " Salutations to you. Great is our love and sympathy to yourself and Mrs Grey because your dwelling and valuables have been destroyed by fire." They went on to ask that they might be allowed to find the materials, and to show how cleverly they could build a new house. They also stated that it would be a labour of love, and that they desired no pay. The concluding sentences in the letter were : " From your loving children, to our father the governor."

His next wise act—many Englishmen at the time thought it a dangerous one—was to ask some of the young Maori chiefs to act as policemen, and older ones to serve as magistrates. Again, when work was slack he set the native workmen road-making, with the result that in a short time New Zealand had many miles of the most beautiful roads. One of the chiefs threatened to become troublesome when good roads through his district were spoken of. The roads were bad, he said, but so they always had been. He and his people had nevertheless got along very well, and so why alter them ? Good roads would only bring a lot of strangers, and as his forefathers had done very well without strangers, he

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was sure he and his people could. The Governor, however, did not argue with the chief. He simply presented him with a beautiful carriage and pair, in order that he and his wife might take drives into the country. Sir George at the same time gave assurances of his great friendship, and said that the use of the carriage would give health and pleasure. The old chief, who had never before had a wheeled carriage, was delighted, and allowed proper roads to be made in order that he might use it. He thus was made to realize the usefulness of such vehicles and the importance of good roads.



Flag of New Zealand

Education was next taken in hand, and was set on a sound footing, thanks to Sir George Grey and George A. Selwyn—the famous Bishop Selwyn, who first went to New Zealand in 1842. Selwyn was the first Anglican bishop in the country, and after studying the language, manners, and customs of the natives very soon won their affection. He and Grey were men of like character, and the best of friends. Together they often walked the whole length of the North Island, calling on chiefs, telling them Christian truth, and speaking of Queen Victoria and the Empire. Verily two wonderful men, who did much toward making New Zealand the loyal and prosperous country it is to-day. For many years these Empire builders were associated, Grey's term of service ending with the year 1853. He, however, returned later for a period of eight years, at a time when there was some trouble, and afterward became

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Premier. He died in London in 1898, and was given a public funeral in St Paul's Cathedral.

New Zealand introduced conscription very early in the Great War, and her sons played a prominent part in many of the war zones. And although the New Zealanders are included in the now famous word 'Anzac' (derived from the initials of the words 'Australian and New Zealand Army Corps'), they eventually earned the nickname of 'Diggers,' our own Tommies giving them the name in order to distinguish them from the Australians, who were known as 'Aussies.' With the New Zealanders are, of course, associated the Maori, who were most loyal to the Empire, many of them fighting in Gallipoli, Flanders, and Palestine.

In the early part of 1916 there was unveiled in the Mangonui County, New Zealand, a remarkable monument set up as a tribute from Maori to the Maori and Pakehas (white New Zealanders) who fell in the war. The inscription is typically Maori :

"In loving memory, and in honour of our sons and relations, both Maori and Pakeha, dead or living, from the County of Mangonui, who willingly offered themselves to sacrifice their lives to uphold the honour of the King and Empire and for the glory of God in this terrible war, which began in Europe and has since spread over the greater part of the world. Splashing through the mountainous waves of the Indian Ocean, our brave lads uphold the names of your noble ancestors, and seek to avenge the deaths of your relations who have fallen. God will give victory to the righteous."

The Maori natives who stayed at home during the war did their share in helping to win, for at the height of the fighting in France a sum of £282 9s. 1d. was

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collected by Maori tribes in New Zealand and sent to the King, with a letter, of which the following is a part of the translation :

To His Most Gracious Majesty KING GEORGE V

We, the undersigned, give you greetings.

Under the great pressure and strain of endurance of this great war, we, your people in this far-away land, are making every effort to keep our end up in supporting our brothers in this great struggle. Here we attach a bank draft for £282, 9s. 1d., collected by your people to send to you to distribute as you think fit in connexion with dealings in warfare.

We further greet you with every good wish and pray that God protect you and your people under the British flag.

Remaining ever your loyal friends and subjects.

[Signed] TAINGUAKAWA TEWAHARVA

HONOITI RANAPIRI

RERE NEKITINI

No story of New Zealand would be complete without mention of its greatest industry—the export of frozen meat. It was in the year 1882 that the industry began, and it has grown enormously, the lamb coming from the Canterbury district (South Island) being particularly famous. The value of frozen meat sent out from New Zealand in the year 1914 was a little over £3,500,000, and wool to double that value was also exported.

Three-fourths of the colony's exports come to the mother country; nearly all the remainder goes to Australia and India.

At one time New Zealand was a favourite place for Chinese emigrants, and was likely to be overrun with

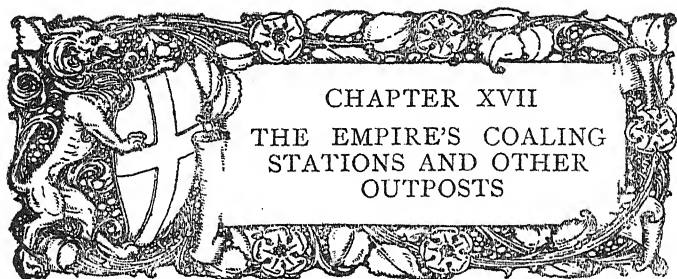
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them. Now, however, each Chinaman who lands has to pay a tax of £50, and naturally this acts as a great restriction upon immigration. When the last census was taken (1911) there were 2630 Chinese in the colony—one to about every 390 Europeans.

COOK ISLANDS.—Among the score or more of small islands that lie off the coasts of New Zealand, and are under its administration, the Cook or Hervey Islands are the largest and most important. The group, which is 1700 miles distant from Auckland, New Zealand, consists of six islands and nine islets, and has a total area of 280 square miles. The islands were discovered by Captain Cook in 1777, but were not annexed by Great Britain till October 1900. In the following June they were placed under the care of New Zealand.

Raratonga is the principal island, and is twenty miles in circumference. The capital and port is Avatiu, which had a population of about 2700 natives and 140 Europeans in 1918. In the middle of last century the island was a cannibal centre; to-day the natives are, happily, more civilized, but exceptionally lazy, and a great hindrance to advancement. Raratonga, said by travellers to be the most beautiful of Britain's possessions in the Southern Seas, is a place of call for the mail steamers between Sydney, New South Wales, Wellington, New Zealand, and San Francisco.

The chief products are oranges, bananas, coffee, and coco-nuts.

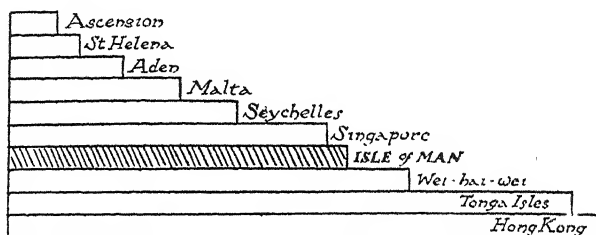


ON a large scale map of the world you will find a succession of tiny islands, isolated harbours, and rocky eminences marked as belonging to Great Britain. And if that map shows the trade routes followed by ships in passing from one part of the world to another, it will be seen that these apparently insignificant-looking spots—insignificant, that is, when compared with great areas like Canada, Australia, India, and South Africa—lie in the track of those trade routes. The spots represent nerve centres of sea-power; they are the coaling stations and harbours for the Empire's great navy.

In olden times, when the Mediterranean Sea was the hub of the world's commerce, England obtained possession of Gibraltar (1704) and Malta (1800). With the possession of India came the necessity for converting the Indian Ocean into an English sea, and for establishing Navy bases on the long journey round the Cape of Good Hope, for as yet the Suez Canal was undreamed of. Thus we may look at Sierra Leone (1787), on the west coast of Africa, the islands of Ascension (1815), and St Helena (1651), also off the west coast of Africa, Cape Town (1795), Port Natal (1843), Mauritius (1810),

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Rodrigues (1809), and the Seychelles (1794), in the Indian Ocean, as links in a chain binding India to England by sea. The opening of the Suez Canal in November 1869 gave additional importance to Gibraltar and Malta. It brought also the necessity for holding or controlling the canal, and hence the occupation of Egypt (1882) and the importance of Aden (1839),



Comparative areas with Isle of Man

with the adjacent islands of Perim (1857), and Sokotra (1886).

To the south-west of India lie the Maldive and Laccadive Islands (1802), and the coaling stations of Diego Garcia (1784), farther away. Off Sumatra lie the Andaman (1789) and Nicobar (1869) Islands. Toward Australia are the Cocos (1867) and Christmas (1888) Islands, while Australia itself forms the eastern boundary of the Indian Ocean, having the naval base of Albany (1823) at the apex of Western Australia. With the exception of the French island of Madagascar and the Dutch island of Sumatra, no power other than the Empire holds an island in the Indian Ocean.

The West Indies, a valuable colonial possession, are indissolubly linked with the naval control of the Atlantic Ocean. Jamaica (1655), Trinidad

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(1797), the Bermudas (1609), Barbados (1625), and St Lucia (1803) are some of the bases whence Nelson, among other British seamen, exerted his magic pressure on Britain's enemies of his day.

Two main links of Empire have been shown in detail. As trade expanded and new routes were opened up, fresh points for attack and defence were added. Thus the opening up of China brought Singapore (1819) into prominence, and gave Hong-Kong (1841) and Wei-hai-wei (1898) to the Empire. The inclusion of Australia in the Empire (from 1770 to 1863) required that the more useful of the Pacific Islands should be brought under the Flag. Some details of the way in which the more important of these places were obtained will now be given.

ADEN.—On the coast of Arabia, at the southern end of the Red Sea, lies Aden, a British possession of 80 square miles and containing (in 1911) about 46,000 people. Previous to the British occupation it belonged to the Sultans of Yemen, a province of Arabia. In the year 1837, a British ship was wrecked on the coast near Aden. The sailors and passengers on shore found themselves surrounded by Arabs, and ill-treated. Britain demanded reparation. The Sultan, to avoid hostilities, offered Aden as compensation. Britain waited two years for the fulfilment of the promise, then, as it was not forthcoming, sent some men-of-war and took possession on 19th January, 1839. It was the first addition to the Empire in Queen Victoria's reign.

PERIM.—The story the French tell of the island of Perim is an entertaining one. France wanted the place, small and desolate though it was, and in January 1857 a French warship was sent to take possession of it.

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The commander called at Aden before going on to Perim, and the British officer in charge at Aden (Commander Coghlan) in a sociable way invited the Frenchman to dinner. The latter took perhaps a little more wine than was good for him, and during the friendly chat following the dinner he divulged to Commander Coghlan the secret of his mission. He was going in the morning, he said, to plant the French flag on Perim. At dawn the French warship set sail and in due course reached Perim, to find a Union Jack defiantly floating on the breeze. After the Frenchman had left the feast Commander Coghlan had made ready a British boat, the *Mahi*, and dispatched it forthwith to take possession of the island. Such is the story of Perim.

MAURITIUS.—Another of our possessions in this part of the world is Mauritius, comprising an area of 720 square miles, and attached to it, politically, are several distinct groups and scattered islands. Mauritius was discovered in 1507 by Mascarenhas, a Portuguese navigator, who gave it the name of 'Cerne,' the supposed ancient name of Madagascar. In 1598 Van Neck, a Dutch explorer, took possession and changed the name to 'Mauritius,' in honour of the famous Prince Maurice of Orange, and a few years later his countrymen went there in large numbers and formed a colony. The settlers did not prosper, chiefly owing to trouble caused by the slaves they had brought with them from Madagascar, and the island was abandoned. In 1715 the French annexed the island, changing the name once again, this time to 'Isle of France.' In 1810, when England and France were at war, a British force, under Sir Ralph Abercromby, was sent to the island. It was captured quite easily, and the name was changed

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back again to Mauritius. The island was formally made over to Great Britain under the Treaty of Paris, 1814.

THE SEYCHELLES.—These form a group of about eighty islands,* mostly mere uninhabited rocks. They lie 930 miles north of Mauritius, and 600 miles north-east of Madagascar. They are said to have been discovered by the Portuguese in 1505, but their history proper dates from 1742, when some French settlers went there. In 1794 a British warship annexed them, and Britain's ownership of them was agreed to by the French at the same time and in the same circumstances as Mauritius, the Seychelles being administered together with that island until 1903, when they were made a separate colony.

The largest of the group is named Mahé; it is about one quarter the size of the Isle of Man, and upon it is the capital town, Victoria, with its perfect harbour, which forms an ideal coaling station for the British Navy. The total area of the eighty or more islands is estimated at 149 square miles—about the same as that of Rutland, the smallest English county. The straggling nature of the possession is illustrated by the fact that one of the islands, Aldabra, is about 680 miles from Mahé.

ASCENSION.—Ascension is an isolated and barren spot 900 miles from the African coast. It was discovered by a Portuguese explorer on Ascension Day, 1501, hence the name. Its situation was too isolated for the Portuguese and the place remained uninhabited until the year 1815, when Great Britain took possession. There are now about 200 people there, and the island is used as a coaling and victualling station for our Navy. One curious feature in regard to this island is its

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rating as a warship. It is on the books of the Admiralty as H.M.S. *Ascension*. This is because, technically, the Navy should not administer on land.

Sailors who have been to Ascension tell us that it is an island of broken glass bottles and coke—an exaggeration, of course, as the surface is really volcanic rock. Rain rarely falls, and scarcely anything grows there. But in the summer of 1918 something wonderful happened. Rain fell abundantly, and a tall green grass grew! It spread like a blessing, and covered the rocks as in the Isle of Flowers. Happy horses on Ascension wallowed in real grass for the first time in their lives. The amazed islanders got into communication with Kew. Kew reported, gave the grass a learned name, and suggested that the seed came on the wings of the south-east wind, or on those of the sooty tern who haunt that part of the island where the welcome grass was first seen. It is a desert grass, easily wafted about, and found in many regions of desert Africa. No doubt the conjunction of the rain, the first in the memory of the oldest islander, with the advent of some blessed bird, painted Ascension green, and it is hoped that enough moisture will be found to keep the grass alive.

ST HELENA.—About seven hundred and sixty miles from Ascension Island is the island of St Helena. It is chiefly famous as the place to which Napoleon was exiled after his defeat at Waterloo, and where he died. Discovered by a Portuguese navigator on St Helen's Day, 1502, and lying in the track of ships carried home by the trade winds from the Cape of Good Hope, it soon became a place of call. The Dutch claimed the island in 1645, but sixteen years later they gave it up in return for a station at the Cape of Good Hope. Some years

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later King Charles II gave the East India Company permission to take it and form a settlement. British settlers were driven out by the Dutch, who, however, took no real interest in the island and soon left it again, whereupon the East India Company took possession once more. This time they met with no interference, and the Company administered the island until it was surrendered to the British Government in 1834. The importance of the island diminished with the coming of steamships and the opening of the Suez Canal. The harbour is a particularly good one, and very useful for British warships.

TRISTAN DA CUNHA.—About fifteen hundred miles south of St Helena lies the island of Tristan, which, with its three neighbouring islets—Gough's, Nightingale, and Inaccessible—forms one of the Empire's most isolated possessions. Tristan was discovered by the Portuguese in 1506, and was occupied by the British in 1816. The main island is about one quarter the size of the Isle of Man, and the population numbered 103 in 1919. The inhabitants consist of descendants of the garrison who remained when the island was taken over, and some people from Edinburgh who went there in 1821, reinforced by settlers of various nationalities (some of them being shipwrecked sailors).

A visitor to the island in 1918 wrote :

“ The people are extremely poor, and the things they want are a measure of their civilization—for the men ‘dungaree’ to make suits, and cotton and calico for the women's dresses. No literature is asked for, because reading is not one of the islanders' accomplishments, but for rat poison they are always grateful. How distant the island is from civilization is best realized by

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the fact that the last letter which came from there arrived in England by way of Australia, and took twelve months over the journey. At one time posts were comparatively frequent. One of our men-of-war used to act as a 'Royal mail,' and visited the island once a year. A cold fit of official economy put an end to this pleasing custom, and the people were requested to leave and proceed to Cape Colony, the nearest place, but one over a thousand miles distant. But they refused to leave their island, their cottages and their cattle, to land as paupers, for in Tristan they neither know nor need money."

BERMUDA.—Another British possession in the Atlantic Ocean (580 miles from the mainland of North Carolina) is Bermuda. The island has a remarkable strategic value, as a radius of 800 miles from it would sweep the coast of North America, from Nova Scotia to Cape Hatteras, and a radius of 1000 miles would sweep the coast of Florida and the whole line of the Antilles, from Cuba to Antigua. Bermuda is the chief of a series of islands, three hundred in all, known as the Bermudas, and sometimes as Somers' Islands. Only fifteen of the number are inhabited. The remainder do not possess any particular value.

The name 'Bermudas' is derived from that of a Spanish navigator, Bermudez, who discovered the islands in 1527, when, however, little or no notice was taken of them. In 1609 Sir George Somers, an Elizabethan buccaneer, started on a voyage to Virginia, but was wrecked on Bermuda. He turned his misfortune to account, and there and then took possession of the group in the name of England. Hence the alternative name, 'Somers' Islands.' A few years after this,



Arrival of English Settlers

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numerous English settlers began to arrive, and a trading company was formed. After the Civil War many Royalists settled there. More than two-thirds of the inhabitants are coloured, and the islands are now a favourite summer resort of Americans. It is, however, as a naval station that we prize the possession, which is well equipped with docks, workshops and coaling facilities for our great Navy.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.—In the South Atlantic, 480 miles from Cape Horn, lie the Falkland Islands, our most southerly possession in the Atlantic Ocean. These out-of-the-way islands were brought to prominent notice in December 1914, when a British squadron, under the command of Vice-Admiral Sir Doveton Sturdee, chased and sank four German warships in their immediate vicinity.

The Falklands were discovered in 1592 by John Davis, an English navigator. Two years later they were visited by Sir Richard Hawkins, and in 1690 by Strong, another English navigator, who gave them their present name.

In 1764 the French settled there. The following year a British fleet, under Commodore Byron, took possession, on the ground that they had been discovered by Englishmen. The following year the Spaniards drove out both the English and the French. After much argument on the part of the interested nations, the Spaniards gave up possession, and in 1771 the islands were proclaimed British. They were not, however, formally occupied, and the Republic of Buenos Aires accordingly established a settlement there, which had to be destroyed because of a serious quarrel between the whalers frequenting the island. Great Britain formally

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took over the islands in 1833, thus ending all disputes as to ownership.

The Falklands were connected with the early life of Nelson, for it was to them he went on his first voyage when only twelve years of age. At the time of the trouble with the Spaniards, in 1771, one of the British



Lord Nelson

warships ordered out was the *Raisonnable*, commanded by Nelson's uncle, Captain Suckling. The latter was very fond of his sister's children and had often promised to take one of them on one of his voyages. Young Nelson now reminded him of this promise, and expressed a wish that he might be permitted to accompany the expedition as a midshipman. Captain Suckling knew his nephew to

be of fragile constitution, and said: "What has poor little Horatio done that he, being so weak, should be sent away to sea? But let him come, and if a cannon-ball takes off his head, he will at least be provided for." Thus, in the spring of 1771, Nelson began his wonderful career. To the dominion of the seas which he gained for England is due her undisputed possession of many of the islands with which we are concerned in this chapter.

FIJI ISLANDS.—There is not a coaling station at Fiji, but these Pacific Islands are too important to be omitted from this brief list. The group consists of about 250 islands—of a total area equal to one half of the United

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Kingdom, but only one-third of the number are inhabited. They were discovered by Captain Cook in 1773, and lie about a thousand miles north of New Zealand. It has been suggested that they are the Prince William Islands mentioned by Tasman during his voyage in 1643.

England, however, had no connexion with the group until 1804, when twenty-seven convicts who had escaped from New South Wales arrived there, and were allowed by the native chiefs to remain. Four years later an English ship was wrecked on the coast of the largest island, Viti Levu, and the sailors remained. Thus the first English settlement began.

In 1847 the Americans secured a footing in Suva, the capital, established a consul, and looked like becoming masters of the place, but the natives burned down the consul's house. Compensation was demanded, and two American warships arrived. At this time Fiji had a famous king, Thakombau by name, who, scenting trouble, decided to evade it by giving most of his lands to England. He said he would not only do this, but would become a British subject if he were allowed to retain his title, and England would pay the money America demanded, 45,000 dollars. England, however, could not agree to this arrangement, as she did not desire to offend America. A trading company that had been formed in Australia, however, was not so particular, and in 1868, when the Germans had got a footing in the islands, the company satisfied the American demand, and received from the King of Fiji 110,000 acres of land in return. In course of time the country got into debt, and £80,000 was needed by the king, who offered the whole of his realm to the English

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if they would find the money. England again declined, and Germany, being given the chance, also refused. England then reconsidered the matter, and on 30th September, 1874, accepted the king's offer. Fiji thus became a British colony.

SAMOAN ISLANDS.—In the far Pacific, but in the direct line of the mail steamers between Australia or New Zealand and Hawaii, on the way to the western ports of North America, lie the Samoan or Navigator's Islands. There are fourteen of them, inhabited mainly by a brown Polynesian race. They are best known to-day as the Samoan group, though they were originally given the name of Navigator's Islands, by their discoverer, Bougainville, in 1768. They have been the scene of much trading by the British, Germans, and Americans. The Americans own a few of the smaller ones, but by an agreement made on 9th November, 1899, Germany took possession of four of the number—Savii, Upolu, Mamone, and Apolima. These German possessions were captured by New Zealand forces during the Great War (29th August, 1914), and under the terms of the Peace Treaty of 1919 they passed into the care of New Zealand. Savii has an area of 660 square miles, but Upolu (340 square miles) is the most populous, it having the capital and port, Apia. The islands have a total area of 1003 square miles—nearly as large as Yorkshire—and are luxuriantly fertile.

The famous British author Robert Louis Stevenson made his home for many years in the island of Upolu, and he is buried on a hill-top there. He will long be remembered by the natives, in whose welfare he took a very deep interest. During the dark days when

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the Germans treated them very harshly Stevenson laboured to protect their interests, and the Germans did their utmost to drive him from Samoa.

THE GILBERT AND ELLICE ISLANDS lie in the Pacific Ocean, north-west of Samoa, and stretch a distance of 360 miles; they comprise some twenty-five coral islands, with several islets depending upon them. The Gilbert group—sometimes called Kingsmill Islands—includes sixteen islands, and the Ellice group—known also as Lagoon Islands—nine. The whole forms a valuable and most interesting protectorate, of which little is heard.

The islands, which have been under British protection for many years, have separate native chiefs, councils, etc., the British Resident Commissioner living and having his headquarters on Ocean Island, the most important of the group, though barely five miles in circumference. This island—often called Paanopa—was included in the jurisdiction of the protectorate in 1900, and it is probably the richest piece of land for its size in the Empire, because of its very rich phosphate fields, from which most of the world is supplied with phosphates, a most valuable fertilizer which doubles the yield of food crops.

It may be stated parenthetically that Ocean Island's only rival in phosphate production is Nauru, or Pleasant Island, also in the Pacific, and about 300 miles north-west of Ocean. Nauru was specially mentioned in the Peace Treaty of 1919 as becoming a British possession, it having been taken from its German owners by the Australian troops in the early days of the Great War.

The early history of Ocean Island is lost in obscurity, but its modern history is very romantic and well worth

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telling. Half a century ago the island was almost unknown, the only visitors being American whalers, who were in the habit of calling for the purpose of refilling their fresh-water tanks and purchasing small quantities of fruits ; the island was so isolated and so small that the Powers and traders gave it little or no thought, and might have continued so to do had it not been for an accidental discovery.

About the year 1900 a small company was formed in New Zealand to trade with many of the islands of the Pacific, chiefly for guano. This enterprising concern had an office in Sydney, a very small office in one of the back streets ; the staff, too, was a small one, few people called, and on hot days it was the custom of the occupants to open wide the front door and to place against it a lump of yellowish rock in such a way that the door could not be blown to by a puff of wind. The seemingly insignificant piece of rock, however, was destined to play a more important part, for after being kicked about the passage for years it attracted the notice of a visitor who had made a study of rocks and minerals. The man picked up the fragment, turned it about and examined it closely ; he then walked away with it. No one hindered him, for who would bother about a mere door-stop ?

In the privacy of his bedroom this student of rocks examined his find more closely, made certain experiments, and grew more interested. He then took the piece of rock back to the office and boldly asked those in charge to tell all they knew about its history. But little was known beyond the fact that the fragment had been brought from Ocean Island by a trader who was interested in its shape, and who valued it so little

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that he had left it behind him for keeping the door open.

The interested visitor gave no voice to his thoughts and hopes, but thanked the company's servant for the information, and went away—to take passage in the first trading vessel that was to call at Ocean Island.

About three months later he returned to the little office in Sydney with the sensational news that he had visited Ocean Island, and had found it to be a veritable treasure island containing immense quantities of the highest grade of phosphate, a product the world needed sorely, because of its great value as a fertilizer. Thus the little piece of apparently useless rock, upon which the keen eye of the student had detected certain rich deposits, led to the foundation of one of the greatest and most serviceable industries of the age.

Despite the great distance of the island from recognized trade routes, its loneliness and other difficulties, money to work the new industry was quickly obtained in London. The phosphate trade was established on a firm basis, and it has prospered beyond the most sanguine expectations. Hundreds of thousands of tons of the valuable product are sent from the island each year, and as a small royalty—said to be sixpence per ton—has to be paid to the natives for all exported phosphate, the Ocean Island inhabitants promise to become the wealthiest islanders in the Pacific.

SOLOMON ISLANDS.—This notable group of Melanesian Islands in the Indian Archipelago lie east of New Guinea. They were discovered by Mendaña in 1567, but they remained almost unknown until they were visited by Carteret more than a century later. In 1886 Germany took possession of the two largest of them,

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Bougainville and Buka, and in 1893 Great Britain took the smaller ones, Guadalcanal, Malanta, Isabel, Choiseul, San Christobal, and others, the German part having a total area of 4200 square miles and the British portion 8357 square miles. Under the Peace Treaty of 1919 the German part became British, the Australian forces having captured Bougainville on 9th December, 1914, thus adding to the Empire territory a little more than half the size of Wales. Bougainville is 140 miles long by 35 miles broad, and the population (about 160,000) mainly Papuans and Polynesians. The colony produces ebony and other valuable woods, pine-apples, coco-nuts, and bananas. One of the smaller islands, Ugi, is, or was, a coaling station for the British Navy.

PITCAIRN ISLAND is one of the most isolated spots in the Empire, and its associations are most romantic. A small island in the far-away Pacific, it was discovered by Carteret in 1767. On 23rd December, 1787, H.M.S. *Bounty* left Spithead for the South Seas, and arrived at Tahiti (Society Islands) the following October. The commander, Lieutenant William Bligh, was tyrannous to his crew, with the result that the sailors mutinied, captured the ship, set Bligh and a few of his followers adrift, and settled at Tahiti; but fearing capture and punishment they fled to the remote island of Pitcairn, the party consisting of nine British sailors, six native men, and twelve native women, some of whom were wives of the British sailors. Bligh, it may be stated, reached Batavia safely with his crew, after a voyage of 3618 miles. The fate of the party which colonized Pitcairn remained unknown till 1808, when an American ship chanced to visit the place. The small colony prospered, and owing to the resources of the island

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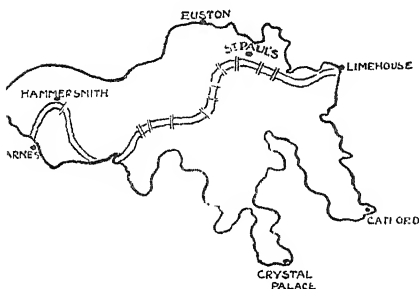
becoming inadequate for the growing population, 193 of the inhabitants removed in 1856 to Norfolk Island, several returning to Pitcairn in 1859 and 1864. The midshipman of the mutineering party was named Edward Young, and two islanders, claiming to be his great-great-grandsons, visited England, and were received by the King at Buckingham Palace on 28th July, 1916. The place is too remote to be visited by trading vessels, and it is only at very rare intervals that a warship is detached to call at this loyal little port of Empire. The present population (1919) is about 140.

NORFOLK ISLAND, in the Pacific, some 1200 miles from Australia (Sydney) and about 400 miles from New Zealand, is five miles long by three miles wide. It was discovered by Captain Cook in 1774, and was used as a penal settlement by Tasmania and New South Wales till 1855. In the following year some descendants of the *Bowley* mutineers from Pitcairn settled there, the newcomers numbering 94 males and 99 females, all of whom had a strain of Tahitian blood in them. The population (1919) is about 900, about 100 being of the pure Melanesian race. The islanders raise large numbers of horses, sheep, and pigs, and export hides and tropical fruits by a steamer which runs monthly between the little island and Sydney.

TONGA ISLANDS.—These islands, known also as the Friendly Islands, lie in the Southern Pacific, 390 miles east-south-east of Fiji, and have an area of 385 square miles—a trifle larger than the Scottish county of Peebles. They were discovered by Tasman, the Dutch explorer, in 1643. The name of Friendly Islands is due to Captain Cook, who visited them and wished to preserve the memory of his kindly reception by the natives.

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Tonga is the native name. The islands have been a British protectorate since 19th May, 1900, but the kings of Tonga, who have lived in Tongatabu, the largest island of the group, have always considered themselves independent sovereigns. King George Tubon II of Tonga, who died on 28th April, 1918, was a notable character.



If Hong-Kong were in London
(Showing course of Thames and bridges)

When the Great War broke out (1914) he at once proclaimed his neutrality, thus following the precedent of his great-grandfather, George I, who announced his neutrality during the Franco-German War. The late king was keenly

alive to the commercial side of philately; he issued new Tonga stamps every few months and made a huge income thereby, until the British Governor of Fiji, under whose 'protection' he was, cautioned him to stop the practice. The population of the islands (1918) is about 24,000, less than 200 being British.

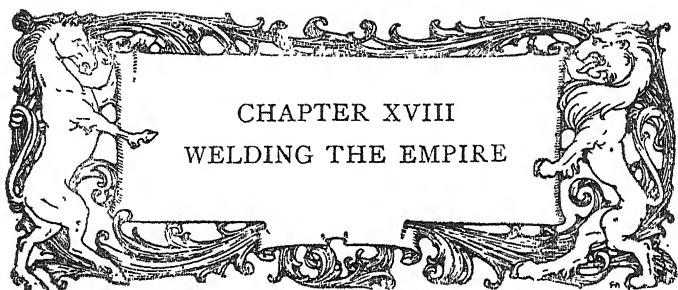
HONG-KONG.—Hong-Kong is an island with a total area of 20 square miles, and its population is chiefly Chinese. It came into our possession through a quarrel about opium. In the early days of last century British trade with China increased enormously, and especially the opium traffic. The Chinese objected to the importation of the drug into their country, owing to its bad effects on the users of it. They attempted to stop the trade, but as the industry was very valuable to

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India the British Government insisted upon its being continued, and the quarrel led to war in 1840. The British fleet was sent out, and also a small army, and Hong-Kong was taken possession of. Canton, Shanghai, Ningpo and several other towns were also captured, with the result that the Chinese Emperor sued for peace. The terms gave Britain possession of Hong-Kong, a right to trade in certain other Chinese ports, and an indemnity of three and a half millions.

Hong-Kong is the headquarters of the British fleet in Chinese waters, and is strongly fortified.

WEI-HAI-WEI.—Another British naval station in China, about 1500 miles north of Hong-Kong, is Wei-hai-wei. The territory occupied reaches for ten miles inland round the bay, and includes many little islands, the total area being 285 square miles. The station was leased by China to Great Britain by agreement made in July 1898. Its occupation was then necessary as an offset to the Russian occupation of Port Arthur.



CHAPTER XVIII WELDING THE EMPIRE

A STRANGE poem, called the *Libel of English Policy*, written about 1440, bids those who seek the "worship and salvation of England" to

Cherish merchandise ; keep the admiralty,
That we be masters of the narrow sea.

The "narrow sea" referred to was the Straits of Dover, and, with Calais in English hands—as it was up to 1558—the poet urged that we had little to fear from the activities of Holland and Spain, then the great rivals of England. While Europe remained a collection of small and conflicting states, England might content herself with the command of the narrow seas. With the growth of nationality—with the grouping of smaller states into what we now call France, Germany, Italy, Russia, and Austria-Hungary—came the need for a wider interest, a wider area of pressure. And so the Empire came into being.

When Drake and Hawkins, Davis and Frobisher were official buccaneers against the Spanish galleons, their real object was the mastery of the "narrow seas." It was, indeed, in that "narrow sea" that the Armada met its fate. When England allied herself with Teuton states against Napoleon, it was to preserve the 'balance

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of power' as against France. And when England allied herself with France and Russia against Germany, her object was the same.

The growth of the British Empire is a silent witness of how this twin policy has dominated—perhaps unconsciously—the minds of Englishmen in the centuries which have passed. Only on one occasion has direct reference been made to the fact that Empire-building was a counterpoise to the ambitions of any one European nation. When the balance of power seemed to be slipping definitely to the side of France, Canning, in his own phrase, “called in the new world to redress the balance of the old.” To overthrow French dominion in Europe, it was needful that Clive should defeat Dupleix in India, that Wolfe should defeat Montcalm at Quebec. And yet the Earl of Chatham, who sent Wolfe to win Canada from the French, averred that America was really conquered on the soil of Europe !

Built up, as the foregoing chapters have explained, by soldiers, sailors, missionaries, explorers, and traders, the Empire is extended broadcast over the face of the globe. A welter of governments and forms, races and tongues, religions and customs, it appears united in only one visible sign—its flag—and in only one idea—liberty. In the noble words of Professor Cramb, the aim of British Imperialism has been :

“ To give all men within its borders an English mind ; to give all who come within its sway the power to look at the things of man's life, at the past, at the future, from the standpoint of an Englishman ; to diffuse within its bounds that religious tolerance which has marked this Empire from its foundation, that reverence yet boldness before the mysteriousness of life and death,

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characteristic of our great poets and our great thinkers ; that love of free institutions, that pursuit of even higher justice and a larger freedom which, rightly or wrongly, we associate with the temper and character of our race."

So speaks an Englishman of philosophic mind. If we would read what an alien mind thinks, the following extract from an American newspaper, *The St Louis Republic*, gives a remarkable picture of the British Empire as it is viewed from without :

" This fearful and wonderful fabric has no central body. There is no *Bundesrath* or Imperial Council. No collective action of its units is possible. The relation to them of the Mother Country is illogical, ill-defined. To the foreigner accustomed to the federation of the American States or of the units of the German Empire the Government looks planless and ineffective.

" All of which is preliminary to the observation that there is not at the present moment any more effective institution in the whole world of political fabrics than the British Empire. Whatever its machinery lacks appears to be supplied by its spirit. The defects of its body are made up for by the unity of its soul.

" The fact cannot be gainsaid that England, who does not begin to be as logical as Germany or as systematic as France in matters of government, has nevertheless the knack of making men step out of their own free will to die in her defence. She has the gift of keeping alive, across tumbling seas, round half a world, the undying bond that unites the heart to home. She has shown herself indifferent to the possession of the taxing power over her colonies—but what matters it? Those colonies willingly tax themselves to send her warships, and their sons seize their rifles in time of strife to go to her aid.

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She has the wisdom so to train and guide the swarthy children of alien races, and even the foes of yesteryear, that they put their living bodies between England and England's enemies. She has a fearfully muddled theory of government, but her practice of government lays hold on the deepest things in the soul of man."

In an effort to keep the balance of power the Empire was founded ; in an endeavour to preserve an ideal of liberty as conceived by the English it persists. And we can say now with some show of confidence that the idea of Empire, of a living bond between sister nations separated by half the globe, has come to its maturity. A thing of slow, almost effortless growth, we see the Empire finding itself. There is becoming visible a conscious unity, an articulate whole amid the jarring of nations. The old theory of a colony as a land dependent upon the colonizing country has disappeared. Our statesmen no longer say, as Disraeli once said, that colonies are a millstone round England's neck. Rather we see them as sister nations, linked by bonds of sentiment and thought to a common ideal, and willing to fight for these common ideals and the common flag.

But it was not always so. Up to the year 1885, in fact, the entire onus of the defence of the Empire from outside was borne, and rightly borne, by Britain. Even so recently as the year named the colonies were, one may say, fledgelings, not able to stand alone, not capable of bearing demands for men or money. The growth of wealth and the advance of population have brought with them very spontaneous offers to share in the burden of Empire, in the task of keeping free the seas of the world, in the endeavour to preserve the common heritage.

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Volunteers from all parts of the Empire offered their services at the time of the Crimean War (1854), Canadian officers fought at Tel-el-Kebir under Wolseley (September 1882), and when the news of General Gordon's death (26th January, 1885), at the hands of the Mahdi, was flashed around the world, back came the offer from far-away Australia: "We offer a contingent; men, horses and guns are ready to start, and we desire to pay the cost."

But these were only incidents. It was later in the year 1885 that the desire for an acknowledged communion between the Motherland and her self-governing colonies found expression. In that year Russia had made a feint on the Afghan frontier, and the tocsin of war spread through the Empire at this threat against India. The attention of Australia and New Zealand, in particular, was directed toward the defenceless state of their shores, and in each colony the question of a local navy was broached. In that year several colonies approached the Home Government for advice as to the measures necessary for their defence, and we thus see in embryo the process of welding the Empire, which has progressed ever since.

With Queen Victoria's Jubilee (1887) came the first real advertisement of the British Empire to a wondering world, an advertisement which was to be repeated, with even greater results, ten years later, at the 'Diamond' Jubilee. And as the kings, queens, and other representatives of the Powers watched the passing by of the long processions of soldiers of every race and from every part of the world, they must have realized that a new Great Power—the British Empire—had appeared among the nations. No longer would

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Great Britain alone have to be watched, but an empire would have to be reckoned with—not a European Power but a World Power.

But these spectacular shows did no more than reveal the width and wealth of Empire. The conscious effort

to mould it, and to give a living cohesive form to the whole, had yet to come. Events were moving toward such an ideal, but the quickening impulse was still needed. It came from Mr Joseph Chamberlain, who elected to take office in 1895 as Secretary of State for the Colonies, when other apparently more important offices might have been his for the asking. Mr Chamberlain had resolved to



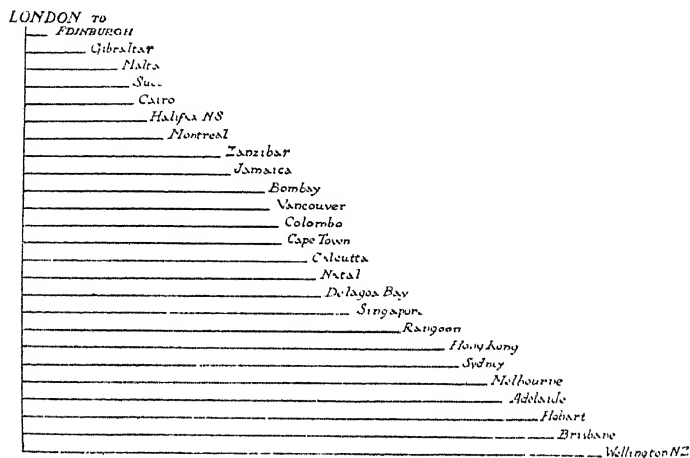
Joseph Chamberlain

make an effort to draw the Empire into one great state, to create a true unity of effort.

Mr Chamberlain had long been in the public eye, first as a zealous municipalist in his own town of Birmingham, and later as a prominent politician. From 1896 onward he appeared to rise above the ordinary political atmosphere, to embrace a wider field of vision. Henceforth he devoted his life to the attempt to evolve an empire—one already at heart—politically and commercially united, each portion living its own life, but one in its attitude toward foreign nations. He died without realizing his hopes, but the influence of his ideas continues and grows.

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Much of the work of welding the Empire has been done by means of conferences between members of the Home Government and representatives of the self-governing colonies. The first conference was held in 1887. Lord Salisbury, in opening it, said that the defence of the Empire was a subject which deserved the



Distances of some of the Empire's Cities from London, compared with
Edinburgh

greatest consideration. It was at this conference that the question of the common responsibility of England and the colonies for the Empire's defence first came into real prominence. A second conference was held at Ottawa in 1894, without much result. Three years later (1897), on the occasion of the Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria, a third conference was held. Mr Chamberlain definitely asked the colonial representatives to express their views as to the contribution which they thought the colonies would be willing to make, to

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establish the principle of mutual support within the Empire. The result was that the colonies agreed to undertake their own land defences. From this conference has sprung the splendid armies of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa.

The first real testing of the Empire came in 1899 with the outbreak of war in South Africa, and the test was nobly responded to. Instantly the sons of Empire flocked to the flag to defend their heritage. The theories of a few men became clothed with reality. Common interest and common responsibility were happily wedded. Put to the proof, the Empire found itself. The World Power was in being.

At the close of the Boer War in 1902 a fourth conference was held. Sir Wilfred Laurier, the Canadian Prime Minister, informed the conference that his country contemplated the equipment of a local naval force in Canadian waters. Thus came into existence the idea of local colonial naval forces. Mr Seddon, the Prime Minister of New Zealand, proposed that each colony should create and maintain an 'Imperial Reserve Force' for service overseas and in the colony as occasion required. And while the conference adopted no really definite conclusions, it showed that the question of the colonies' share in the defence of Empire had come into the sphere of practical politics.

In the year 1905 changes of great importance were made at the British War Office. An Army Council was created, a General Staff (now Imperial General Staff) was established, and an Imperial Defence Committee was brought into being. The Army Council brought a wider control over the Army. The General Staff centralized the work of co-ordinating defence, and in the

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Imperial Defence Committee was created a practically permanent conference of the units of the Empire.

Following on these important changes came the fifth conference of 1907. By the principal resolutions at this conference, in the words of *The Round Table* for August 1911, there was "established the status of the Dominions as material entities distinct from the British Isles. It recognized that the basis of Imperial organization was the co-operation of five nations (the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa), not the centralization of power in the heart of the British acting as the Imperial Government. It finally destroyed the older conception of Imperial development as a gradual reunion of the Colonies with the Mother Country, through representation in either of the British Houses of Parliament."

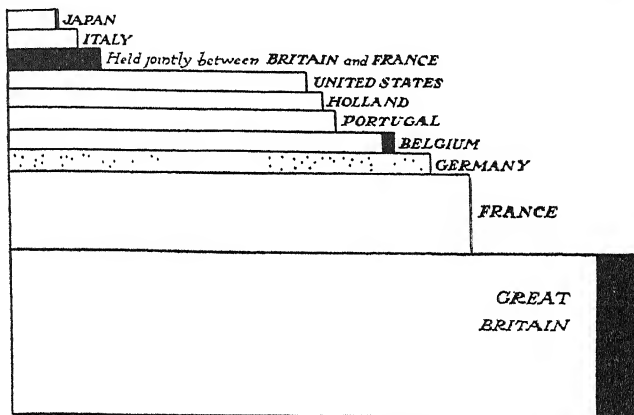
As sister nations linked together by ties of blood and sentiment, acknowledging one flag and cherishing, as Professor Cramb puts it, a common ideal of liberty, the self-governing units of the Empire were to unite in a common defence.

Following on the fifth conference came, in 1909, an Imperial Defence Committee, on which sat representatives of the self-governing dominions. From the resolution agreed to by all parties, "that each part of the Empire is willing to make its preparations on such lines as will enable it, should it so desire, to take its share in the general defence of the Empire," has sprung a movement of ever-increasing effort, the final power of which no man can foresee. In 1909 the New Zealand Defence Act was passed, providing for the universal military training of all males in New Zealand between

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the ages of twelve and twenty-one. In the same year Australia passed her Defence Act, which made all males in Australia liable to be trained. In 1912 South Africa passed a similar Act, while Canada has reorganized her old established militia defence force.

The sixth Imperial Conference (1911) dealt in large



Approximate Areas of Territories of Chief Colonial Powers
 Showing Germany's lost colonies (dotted) and their allocation (black) under the
 Peace Treaty of 1919

measure with the wider issues of foreign policy and the defence of the Empire. And it resulted in a great advance toward co-operation for defence, and common control of the Empire's destinies. In the words of Mr Fisher, the Australian Prime Minister, the Dominion Premiers were received into the "innermost councils" of the English Government. From the lips of Sir Edward Grey, then Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, they learned the facts of the international situation as it affected the Empire. They were, in fact, placed in a position equal to that of the English Cabinet

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on questions of foreign policy. Only one stage more was required—that the Prime Ministers should attend the English Cabinet itself as coequals in the government of the United Kingdom. And this step was first taken in the case of Sir Robert Borden, Prime Minister of Canada, on his visit to England in 1915, and next in that of Mr Hughes, Prime Minister of Australia, on his visit in 1916. Since this date such conferences and admissions thereto of colonial statesmen and generals have been common.

Thus hastening slowly, a powerful tendency to an Imperial partnership is making itself manifest. With the outbreak of war against Germany and Austria-Hungary in August 1914, when the Empire had to fight to maintain those principles which the English have ever held, the sons of the Empire stood forth as one man to defend the common interests. In treasure, and above all in men, the Empire gave lavishly. The self-governing dominions spared nothing. India gave with an almost reckless prodigality. From the islets of the Pacific, from the forests of Africa and the slopes of the Himalayas, came men to lay down for the Empire the only gifts they had to offer—their lives. The prairies of Canada, the spaces of Australia, the 'England of the Pacific,' and the uplands of South Africa let loose a torrent of courage, determination, and sacrifice upon the soil of Europe.

The British Empire has been reared, slowly but surely, upon a broad and unshakable foundation. Imperial partnership is an accomplished fact ; Imperial federation—the form—will follow.

